The Education Digest

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THE EDUCATION DIGEST

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Volume XXIII MAY 1958 Number 9

To Fulfil the Potential of Our Ideals

Planning Improvements in Education

EDUCATIONAL POLICIES COMMISSION

In The Contemporary Challenge to American Education

THE American people now are participating in the making of decisions which may shape the future of American education and the future of the nation. As plans for improvement develop, they should be made consistent with the following considerations:

The strengthening of American education will depend on public understanding and support. In America the schools belong to the people. Parents have an important voice in the education of their children, and public funds make educational opportunities available to all children and youth. Consequently, the quality of the educational program in individual American communities is determined largely by public understanding of what education can do and what good schools are like.

Public misinformation can cause serious damage to American education. The prerogatives of control and support carry with them important consequences and responsibilities. In evaluating messages which purport to discuss school problems, citizens must have accurate information and must be able to interpret it correctly. No public service is rendered when inaccurate information is taken at face value. For example, it has been asserted publicly that under 12 percent of American high-school students study algebra and geometry. Yet, according to information for the year 1956-1957 released by the United States Office of Education, about 67 percent of all American students in the ninth grade studied algebra, which is a ninth-grade subject in most schools, and nearly all the remainder studied general mathematics. And in the tenth grade, at which level geometry is usually taught, 41.6 percent of the students were enrolled in that course.

Reported from a section of The Contemporary Challenge to American Education, *a publication of The Educational Policies Commission of the American Association of School Administrators and National Education Association of the United States, (1958), 18–23.*

It has also been asserted publicly that under 9 percent of American high-school students study chemistry and under 5 percent, physics. In American high schools, chemistry is usually offered at the eleventh-grade level; it is designed as a course for the able students. United States Office of Education information shows that during the school year 1956-1957 the number who took chemistry was 70 percent of the upper half of the entire eleventh-grade enrolment in that year. Physics is usually offered in the twelfth grade. Like chemistry, it should not be required of those in the lower half in terms of academic ability. The number of students who studied physics in 1956-1957 equaled 50 percent of the upper half of the entire twelfth-grade enrolment.

To cite such examples is not to try to deny that important improvements in science and mathematics education are needed, but merely to stress the importance of basing judgments about school performance on facts accurately interpreted. Citizens must recognize that careless criticism of education may actually result in a deterioration of quality rather than in improvement. An atmosphere of fear, distrust, or emotional antagonism is not conducive to those changes and tests of new ideas which are the basis of improvement.

Many years must elapse before a change in a school has direct influence on the society at large. A program to improve science teaching in American high schools, if adopted today, could not produce better trained, practicing scientists for at least five to seven years. The Soviet scientists who succeeded in placing a satellite in an orbit are in few cases products of the Soviet school system now operating. Many of them, in fact, received their education elsewhere than in the Soviet Union.

Citizens ought not to overestimate the speed with which an educational program, even at the college and university level, will change scientific or intellectual achievement. Education is a long-term investment, the profits of which are many years in the making.

LET'S NOT IMITATE

American imitation of Soviet education would undermine American democracy. Soviet educational practices cannot be used to achieve American objectives. Soviet education is designed to serve the communist state. It creates an intellectual and technological elite which wields power and controls opinion in the nation.

American educators are familiar with curriculums of the rigor and rigidity of that of the Soviet Ten-Year School. It resembles those of certain 19th century European schools whose purpose was to create an elite class. In general such curriculums were used to weed out the less able pupils and relegate them to inferior schools, thereby producing both an elite and a mass

of followers . Evidence begins to accumulate that this is the impact of the Ten-Year School's secondary curriculum on Soviet society.

The Soviet Union has been making great progress toward universal 10-year education for all its young people, but this does not mean that all students will graduate from the Ten-Year School. There are many other types of Soviet schools, including vocational and evening schools. The last three years of the Ten-Year School, which are the main route to higher education, are far from universal. Apparently only half of the students even enter the last three years, and only one-third graduate.

The educational tradition in the United States is totally different. American schools have sought the development of each individual and have avoided the creation of an aristocratic class. Americans have sought to develop leadership and high talent within the framework of the whole society rather than by segregating the most promising. That is why comprehensive, universal schools have been developed.

The challenge before the American people calls on them to evaluate their schools and to help improve them. There is no reason, however, to abandon the basic democratic pattern in which they have developed. The strength of this nation will continue to be found in the talents and spirit of individual Americans.

The challenge before American education ought not, therefore, to be regarded as a matter of competition with Soviet science, technology, or education. The real challenge to America is to fulfil the great potential of her own ideals. For American education this must involve, at the least, increased attention to the gifted young people in schools that are designed for all young people, improved guidance in planning programs suited to individual talents and capacities, and improvement in teaching and the status of teachers.

The Educational Policies Commission proposes immediate and long-range priorities to achieve these ends: emphasis on higher education now, especially at the graduate level, for the quickest possible results; longer-range emphasis—to begin now—on recruitment and education of teachers; and for the long-range, prompt and enduring response of the public in providing adequate support for education.

Let no one doubt that this will require sacrifice from every American. Today, more than ever before, the survival of this nation depends on the success with which the schools and colleges accomplish their task. When the American people realize what is at stake, and when they understand what must be done to ensure the national future, they will respond with that massive support—enthusiastic and hopeful—which alone can develop and channel the powers of a free people to build a safe and free world. •

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We Need to "Crash" Through Existing Barriers

Frustrations of Science Education

SAMUEL M. BROWNELL

In The Detroit Science Education Story

SCIENCE education: Does it produce or frustrate potential scientists?" Why raise such a question, you may ask, in the face of this nation's record of producing great numbers of scientists who have helped to develop the world's greatest technological economy and defense program? Actually it is because we need to increase the efficiency of science education even beyond its present level. We need to secure more and better scientists faster.

Some immediate adjustments can increase the output of scientists, engineers, and mathematicians somewhat. But the major job of permanently increasing the number of leaders in science, and in other fields, from able young people who do not go far enough in school or prepare themselves sufficiently well to be scientists needs to be considered in terms of decades, not of months and years.

A sound program cannot come about as the quick result of a "crash" program. It may be, however, that we need a program sudden enough and large enough to "crash" through existing barriers and initiate these changes without delay. The problem then facing us is to sustain through the years an interest in and support for the measures which will cause students, their parents, and the general public to place good teaching and sustained and rigorous study high enough among the things they value.

Samuel M. Brownell, former U. S. Commissioner of Education, is Superintendent of Detroit Public School, Michigan. Reported from The Detroit Science Education Story, *an address delivered at the Eighth Institute of The Thomas Alva Edison Foundation in Detroit, November 21, 1957, and published by the Thomas Alva Edison Foundation (December 1957), 3–19.*

There must be an open road for, and social recognition of, all who have ability and who will prepare themselves adequately as scientists, mathematicians, engineers. Above all, there must be provided adequate economic and social recognition for teachers who are well enough equipped to inspire and direct the learning of students in the elementary grades, high schools and colleges, and graduate schools.

This is a large order, but by no means impossible. We count the millions and billions of dollars for missiles and other defense weapons as money invested in protection of our lives and properties. But investment in more and better nu-

clear weapons and missiles can never hope to bring the returns that are possible from investment in improving education to release the greatest possible ability of each individual to devote his energies for human welfare.

What are the conditions which are reducing our output of scientists? Where are the great losses of potential scientists that science education can reduce? They lie in these fields: (1) loss of potential scientists among those who leave school before they secure any or enough science education to be useful scientists; (2) loss of potential scientists among those who stay in school but elect other specializations because their exposure to science did not take; (3) loss of potential ability of those who do become scientists but who are developed to be less efficient than they might have been.

Is it not then appropriate to examine science education in order to see if there are ways in which present educational practices may frustrate potential scientists? Among conditions which reduce the present output of scientists and mathematicians from the schools and colleges in this nation below what it could and probably should be, I shall mention four.

POOR TEACHERS

First, having as teachers of arithmetic and science in the elementary schools—or high schools—persons who are insecure in their understanding of mathematics as a way of, and essential to, quantitative thinking, or who dislike arithmetic or science. Science and mathematics students must have their eagerness, their curiosity, their interest whetted and kept at a reasonably high level. Otherwise they will never continue to the point of becoming scientists.

It is in the elementary schools that attitudes toward learning are substantially built or curbed. Yet it is a fact that many elementary-school teachers have had little or no science study in high school or beyond. And others teaching arithmetic have had little or no work in mathematics beyond algebra or a general mathematics course in the ninth grade. Colleges preparing elementary teachers have made great strides of late years in changing their curriculums to remedy this deficiency. Nevertheless there is a need to continue to examine our situation to see how extensively we are relying for the early training of pupils in arithmetic and science on persons insecure in their preparation or negative in their attitude toward the subjects.

A second condition is that of closing doors to further advance in mathematics and science study for able pupils by action of teachers or by curriculum organization. Arithmetic and mathematics and science work have been organized in sequential steps or courses, and student interest in these fields must be continued over a long period during which it must be disciplined by sustained tasks that require con-

centrated and, at times, tedious work. Failure to provide sufficient immediate and long-range rewards in the study of science or mathematics may be as effective in closing the door to further advance of a youth as exclusion from schools. And discouragement also results from working in a class taught by a teacher of science or mathematics who measures his success by the number of pupils he fails instead of by the number he prepares for and interests in going on to the next course that is offered in the curriculum.

Furthermore, since there are not enough among those of high ability who decide very early that they want to be scientists, mathematicians, or engineers, and who later stay on to become scientists or mathematicians, we must provide opportunities to enter these specializations for those who have high ability and who develop serious science concerns at differing ages, or who resume scientific interest after a lapse of time.

HARD AND SOFT COURSES

A third way in which schools and colleges may be frustrating some potential scientists may be through making other portions of schooling more rewarding, or science less rewarding, for equal expenditure of time and energy. For years students who have enrolled in laboratory science courses have been required to spend more clock hours in class and laboratory combined for a given amount of credit toward graduation than required for nonlaboratory courses. And, in order to schedule double laboratory periods, students were more likely to find it necessary to have them at times that were in competition with extracurricular activities or to take sciences at the deprivation of study periods which other students have.

Another situation has grown up in many schools or campuses in which, for equivalent expenditure of time and energy and quality of performance, pupils receive higher grades in subjects other than the sciences and mathematics. Thus, when we hear criticisms today that students choose *soft* rather than *hard* courses we need to consider how much of this is due to the way in which schools and colleges operate. I submit that the idea that some areas of study are inherently harder than others needs to be examined critically to see if what is involved is not inequity in the way science is treated compared with other subjects.

We need to be alert to the danger of frustration from the fear of failure. We need to be careful about applying the idea that science and mathematics are *harder,* and thus screen out potential scientists by fear that they might not be able to succeed. We need to be careful lest we eliminate able young people from science or math courses by applying more rigorous tests or doing less to challenge their interest than is true in other fields.

The fourth condition I shall

Classroom Methods for

mention is restricting science opportunities to pupils because facilities are limited. Shortages of laboratory space is even now a factor of importance for many schools and colleges who have students able and willing to go ahead with science study. Lack of equipment to deal with nuclear science and electronics plagues teachers who themselves are equipped to work with students in these fields. We do have a lack of sufficient well-qualified science and mathematics teachers in elementary schools, high schools, and colleges. But if there were now available such teachers, and if a larger proportion of students continued to enrol in science, we still would have the problem of seeing that teachers and students are not frustrated by shortages of space and equipment for engaging in scientific study and activity.

PROGRESS NOTED

Yet, in spite of frustrations, progress *is* being made. This fall the number of high-school pupils enrolled in science and mathematics (which has increased steadily year by year for many years) was the highest in the nation's history. The percentage of high-school pupils enrolled in science and mathematics also has increased slightly. One may regret that this percentage does not increase more rapidly, but to be able to note a gain—and that a consistent gain—is notable and heartening. And remember, this is in the face of a shortage of science teachers and science facilities in many places.

I call this to your attention, too, in the light of much publicized figures which point out that between one-fifth and one-quarter of high schools do not offer physics or chemistry. Let us keep in mind that only about 5 percent of the nation's high-school pupils are enrolled in this 23 percent of the high schools, probably 100 or fewer pupils per school. This is because there are still about one-half of the high schools which enrol less than 200 pupils.

If science education is to produce scientists in numbers and of the quality we need, the problem is more than one of requiring that more students sit more hours in courses labeled science and mathematics. Teachers, school administrators, boards of education, from elementary grades through advanced graduate courses, all have important parts in the making of scientists and need to examine present practices to see the extent to which they may be frustrating as well as producing scientists. While progress is being made to improve and increase science education by school systems, much necessary improvement of science education is something that must receive attention, work, and added support for decades — not just months and years. This involves, in addition to the best efforts of educators, the votes of school boards, legislatures, the Congress, and citizens at the polls. •

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Classroom Methods for

The Gifted, the Average, and the Retarded

WALTER W. COOK

In Phi Delta Kappan

THE current tide of public interest in public education is welcomed by all competent schoolmen —even the panic-striking books, pamphlets, and journal articles crying that we are neglecting our gifted children, that Johnny can't read, that children can't spell, that schools have no discipline, and blaming the whole sorry mess on that overworked, underpaid, and unappreciated group of men and women who have dedicated their lives to improvement of public education.

These articles can leave some good in their wake; that is, they can if we are not panicked into indefensible patterns of school organization and procedure. For it is more important than ever in these times that we keep our eyes on the goal—at least 12 years of schooling for all the children of all the people; that we take *every child* where he is and develop his capacities to as high a level as possible in the time we have. Let us resolve to make certain that this tumult and shouting leads to more skillful ways of providing for individual differences; more enriched programs for all children; enough classrooms for every child; a wealth of instructional materials—books, books, and more books in the school library, in every classroom, and in every home; a class size that is manageable; a work load that does not leave the teacher too physically and emotionally exhausted for good teaching; and above all, educational procedures based on greater insight into how the creative power, imagination, and thrill of learning can be released in all children.

Walter W. Cook is Dean of the College of Education, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis. Reported from Phi Delta Kappan, *XXXIX, (March 1958), 249–55.*

Few laymen have had the opportunity to learn many facts known through the findings of research by competent schoolmen. The articles in the lay journals and newspapers, both pro and con, rarely get above the emotional level. The layman, therefore, knows little about how great is the range of ability in the common schools; why retardation and acceleration are not an answer to the problem of variability; why general ability grouping is not an answer; how the concept of the passing mark and the textbook distort educational processes into mere mechanical memorization; and how

and under what conditions the teacher is able to maximize individual development in heterogeneous groups.

It is widely believed by laymen that instructional groups can be made more homogeneous in achievement through effective teaching. Education is conceived to consist of learning such things as are found in textbooks — spelling words, type problems in arithmetic, causes and results of wars, names of the states and their capitals, explorers and where they explored, countries and their products, and the seven basic food groups. To such, good teaching is conceived to consist of assigning, threatening, drilling, rewarding, and punishing, until the pupils can verbalize these facts. The process of providing for individual differences is assumed to mean getting all pupils to memorize the facts required by the examination in sufficient amount to exceed the passing mark. What is the harm in this simple conception of the school process which substitutes information for education?

ANSWERS FROM RESEARCH

Research has given us some answers. It appears that limited educational goals in the form of lists of facts and type problems which enable the pupil to answer examination questions of the *name, describe, define, who, what, when,* and *where* variety and which may be memorized in the rote sense for examination purposes to give a semblance of uniformity of achievement in meeting the requirements of a passing mark, result in highly temporary learnings. The forgetting curves of such learning closely approximate those of nonsense materials.

Although rapid forgetting is the rule when factual tests are repeated, it has been demonstrated that tests of problem-solving ability, reading comprehension, the application of principles to new situations, organizing ability, and the interpretation of new data show an *increase* in ability with the passing of time. When learning is structured and meaningful and involves problem-solving mental processes, the learning is relatively permanent. Such learning involves unlimited goals, and when the abilities of all members of a group are taxed, individual differences increase during the period of learning.

The conclusion seems justified that the emphasis on the process of striving for limited goals, homogeneity of achievement, and getting all pupils over the passing mark tends to encourage teachers to set limited goals for instruction which results in temporary factual learning. Our conclusion must be that the more effective the instruction— the more adequately we meet the needs of all pupils— *the more heterogeneous groups become.*

THE CENTRAL PROBLEM

The central problem of meeting the needs of the slow pupil and the gifted pupil, as well as the average pupil, is how best to meet

the needs of individuals in groups of widely varying ability. Since all instructional groups vary widely in interest and ability, it seems wiser to attempt to develop techniques for meeting the needs in such groups instead of striving for a homogeneity which cannot be achieved. This calls for changes in beliefs, attitudes, and understandings which will result in more defensible administrative and curriculum policies. Let us suggest some of them.

ADMINISTRATIVE POLICY

The administrative policy should have two purposes: (1) to make it possible for the teacher to know the pupil well enough to meet his needs and (2) to provide instructional material with a range of difficulty and interest appeal commensurate with the needs of the instructional group:

a) The size of classes must be reduced to not more than 25 pupils. The practice of giving each elementary teacher a class of from 30 to 40 pupils and having the high-school teacher meet from 150 to 250 different pupils a day, with instruction based on a uniform textbook, precludes the possibility of meeting individual needs.

b) A systematic testing program revealing status and growth in the basic intellectual skills and abilities (not facts) required for optimum adjustment in the culture must be instituted, with the results for each pupil from kindergarten to college graphically portrayed. The purposes of these tests are not the traditional ones—those of holding teacher and pupils to standards or as a basis for promotion or marking; the purpose is rather to enable the teacher to know more about the pupil, the books he can read, the type of problems he can solve, the amount of improvement that can be expected—in short, to know the educational experiences needed.

c) A permanent record folder, containing in addition to the superimposed profiles of the test results, the health record, samples of handwriting, creative written work, and other evidences of achievement showing the pupil's development from kindergarten on, should be in the hands of each teacher.

d) Each teacher should have an opportunity for a personal conference with the parents of each pupil not less than twice each year in order that both the parents and teacher may understand the pupil better.

e) The primary basis for grouping children should be physical and social development (probably best indicated by chronological age), since these are the most obvious criterions of status in childhood groups. A child should live and work with the group he most obviously belongs with—one which accepts him and which he accepts.

f) There must be grouping within classes on the basis of status and needs in specific learning areas. The groups should be flexible as to size and duration and specific in purpose.

g) The practice of labeling school books by grade should be discontinued. A code number indicating to the teacher the difficulty of the material is sufficient.

h) In both the elementary and high school, the practice of having a teacher instruct the same group of pupils from three to six years should be encouraged.

i) At the high-school level there should be special honors courses for students who demonstrate unusual ability in mathematics, science, language, and other subjects.

j) In the high school, the practice of integrating English and the social studies in a four-to-six-year coordinated sequence with two- or three-hour daily periods in a laboratory workshop should be encouraged.

k) A wealth of instructional material should be provided in each classroom. It should have a range of difficulty, interest appeal, and content commensurate with the range of abilities and interests of the class. It must be placed in the classroom and not in the library or other special room. Perhaps the best way to meet the needs of the potential geniuses in our classes is to place them in intellectual contact with the geniuses of the ages. This can be done through books. This should be an item of first priority in any school system. The most serious indictment that can be brought against public education today is its failure to furnish the teacher with adequate books and instructional material and to surround every pupil with a wealth of reading materials of both literary and a factual nature. Textbooks are necessary, but they are far from sufficient as instructional material.

CURRICULUM POLICIES

What about curriculum policies? An understanding of individual and trait differences is essential for determining adequate curriculum policies. Such policies should: (1) provide flexibility of requirements in order that the potential unskilled laborer and the potential research physicist will not be held to the same requirements; (2) free the teacher to plan for the welfare and optimum development of each pupil; and (3) broaden the curriculum sufficiently to recognize and reward the great variety of aptitudes and interests of students, enabling each to discover his strengths and weaknesses and preparing him to find his place in our complex society with its multiplicity of demands.

a) Curriculum content should be organized around large units or problems in the social-science and natural-science areas. Each unit should be organized and developed with the following purposes in mind: (1) to make possible an appeal to many different interests and to utilize to the maximum the great variety of abilities; (2) to make possible the utilization of a wealth of reading materials selected to ensure a wide range of difficulty, content appeal, and points of view; (3) to provide possibilities for use

Are You a "Sitting Duck"?

of a wide variety of stimulating materials from books, both literary and factual, moving pictures and other visual aids, field trips, museums, journals, and observations from the world of work; (4) to stimulate and make meaningful a wide range of activities in reading for different purposes, use of reference materials, writing reports and letters, interviewing people with special knowledge, preparing and presenting oral reports, planning, organizing materials, seeing relationships, developing generalizations, dramatization, construction projects, appreciation of music and the arts in their proper relation to life, quantitative thinking, designing graphic portrayal of data, evaluating evidence, reading maps and diagrams, assuming individual responsibility, cooperating in group activities—all to the purpose of developing understandings, ideals, beliefs, attitudes, and above all, sustaining intellectual interests.

b) The grade level at which certain knowledge, skills, and abilities should be learned cannot be determined with any degree of specificity. The graded lists of skills and knowledge commonly provided in textbooks serve to provide a helpful sequence of materials in developing skills in the various sub-groups of abilities; they furnish material which should be emphasized as limitation in a skill becomes evident, and they should be used as a checklist for diagnostic purposes. It should not be assumed that these listed and itemized goals are to be achieved in a 1, 2, 3 fashion, out of their functional setting and natural context, once and for all time, and that all instruction should be organized around these piecemeal itemized goals. Perhaps half the school time should be devoted to a systematic development of the skills necessary in the development of units and related to them as much as possible. The other half of the time should be devoted to the meanings and relationships involved in understanding the social sciences and natural sciences.

c) The pupil should have a large share of responsibility in setting the immediate goal toward which he strives and for evaluating his own work in terms of this goal. This will help ensure that the pupil develops high ideals of performance and will focus attention on the next step in his progress. •

I URGE caution against the tendency to accommodate the curriculum to individual interests at too early a stage . . . The aim of the school curriculum at least for the able and highly gifted should be to prepare them for advanced study in such a way that they have a choice of fields of endeavor in college and afterward.—*K. Ronald Bergethon,* Brown University.

MAY

Are You a "Sitting Duck"?

Classroom Control in the High School

EMELIE RUTH DODGE

In NEA Journal

AS I stood before my first 11th grade English class seven Septembers ago, a full-fledged teacher at last, I enthusiastically looked over the 30 pupils whose lives I was going to mold, and my heart sang, "Mine! These are mine! I can do anything I want with them!"

This power-mad era in my life was brief, but it was years before I realized that behind the silence and order of my first day of school were concealed 30 scouts reconnoitering enemy territory. In my case, the report must have gone back, "Sitting duck!"

I was unprepared to cope with problems in classroom behavior. I knew the history of educational philosophy; I was familiar with educational terminology; I accepted the principle of permissive atmosphere. But no textbook or lecture had dealt with flying missiles, strange noises from unknown quarters, out-of-control discussions, chronic tardiness, impertinence, effrontery, or any of the other devices for retarding classroom progress.

"Discipline," in its connotations of demand and punishment, of autocratic authority, went out of style about 25 years ago. But because to teach remains the paramount purpose of teachers, and since this purpose cannot be accomplished without classroom order, "discipline" is still necessary although it wears a new and prettier dress. We see it walking abroad as "control." Superintendents demand teachers who can control students; boards of education dismiss teachers who lack classroom control.

Emelie Ruth Dodge is an English teacher at the Scarsdale Senior High School, New York. *Reported from* NEA Journal, *XLVII (March 1958), 180–81.*

What, then, can new teachers do to deal with problems of classroom control? Teachers colleges and textbooks have some helpful general discussion of the matter. Articles in education journals may be useful, and advice from experienced teachers can provide aid. However, since the very same classroom problem rarely arises twice, a pat answer or case history isn't of much value. Furthermore, each teacher's personality has a different impact on students, and, therefore, each teacher is forced to discover his own particular way of handling a problem.

I have found that the most sensible way to handle the matter of classroom control is by not allowing problems to develop.

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My brief, but potent, experience has revealed some general procedures which boys and girls seemed to find fair and logical and which I find helpful in preventing unpleasant classroom situations.

FAIRNESS

Several recent surveys of what students consider as the characteristics of a good teacher list fairness as a first requisite. This sounds simple. However, fairness involves constant vigilance on the teacher's part, careful attention to consistency, faithful warning in advance, and several weeks of patient waiting while the students rest and observe.

Students need convincing. Having dealt with adults for years, they have learned that adults are inconsistent, inattentive, moody, and capricious. But if you want to build a reputation for fairness among your students, these principles may prove valuable to you:

Don't threaten unless you can, and intend to, fulfil the threat. Don't promise unless you can, and intend to, fulfil the promise. It may take only one unfulfilled threat or promise to assure your boys and girls that you are no exception to their rapidly crystallizing conviction that adults are three-quarters hot air.

Don't break a rule for anyone unless the entire class can see that it is an emergency. There are times when exceptions must, of course, be made; but when these cannot be postponed and handled in private conference the class should be allowed to see that an exception is necessary.

And stick to school rules yourself. If there is a tardy bell, observe it. Don't wander into your classroom late and expect your status to excuse you. Always tell students the truth. It is better to say that you don't think they need to know than to risk being caught in even the most innocent and generous lie. You will be amazed at how much the class can accept and understand.

Keep your classroom rules short and simple. Don't establish long lists of do's and don'ts, but make five or six basic and inclusive statements and then stick to them. Always make your demands clear to everyone ahead of time. Don't give a pupil a chance to say: "But I was absent the day you gave us that!" Write your requirements and assignments on the board to be copied into notebooks, or give out mimeographed sheets. Then make absolutely certain that these instructions are understood.

KNOWLEDGE

The students' second requisite for a good teacher is knowledge of subject matter. If your boys and girls respect you as a person who knows what he's talking about, who is widely informed, and who works hard and consistently at his job, your problems in discipline will be fewer. Come to class each day prepared to utilize every minute of the period. Plan a variety of activities

and plan more than you can do in a period, so that if you see signs of boredom, you can switch your activity and again avoid difficulty before it occurs. As I think over the unpleasant situations I've experienced in class, I find that they almost invariably occurred because the students were not really busy.

In spite of all this golden advice, you will probably find some disciplinary situations arising in your classes. These are best handled unobtrusively on an individual basis. But don't appeal to any student by suggesting or implying that he has more ability than the others, or that he may expect sympathy because he has a problem at home. While young people want to be treated as individuals they do not like being singled out as different—even if they are.

I have found that normal teenagers deeply resent special treatment. For the most part, they do not understand why or how they get into painful situations, but they feel that in treating them as psychological cases, teachers are exhibiting a total lack of understanding and are making a crisis out of a crocus.

If students know that you are trying to be fair, if they can respect your knowledge and industry, and if they feel that you sincerely like them, they will be less interested in humiliating or annoying you, in retarding class progress, or in seeking amusement of an unpleasant nature during class time. In fact, given the right classroom climate, selfdiscipline will flourish in a gratifying way.

Students will feel increasingly secure in your presence as they become more sure of their ground. When they know what to expect, they will feel happier and more comfortable, and, for that matter, so will you. •

Discipline in School and at Home

• Control of discipline is like controlling a fire. If you catch it early, it is easy to handle.—Lloyd W. Waller in *California Journal of Secondary Education.*

• You want children to learn through discipline and to become disciplined by learning. Expect and plan for both and you will get them.—Jack E. Kittell in *Professional Growth Guide.*

• The trouble with some people's smart children is that they don't smart in the right places.—From *The Educational Courier.*

• The curious mother asked her daughter why she drank her milk in kindergarten and not at home. The child replied, "When the teacher says drink your milk, she means it, and you don't."—From *The Instructor.*

1958

How Effective Is It?

Viewing Educational TV

HAROLD B. DUNKEL

In The Elementary School Journal

EDUCATIONAL TV is an unmitigated evil, and the chief task facing education is to restrict and harass it so that it can do the least possible damage." "TV is the only hope for effective education; and staffs, curriculums, methods, and buildings must be drastically transformed in order to utilize it to the maximum." Much of the writing and formal talk about educational television revolves about one of these contrasting views.

For reasons irrelevant here, I have recently tried to learn something about educational television. As a newcomer, I have been struck by the amount of evangelistic zeal and intransigent opposition aroused by the medium. These responses are probably to be expected since they are called forth by every educational novelty. Probably most of us in the teaching profession, however, occupy a middle ground. While we doubt the efficacy of television as the sole sacrament leading to educational salvation, we do feel that it is a powerful resource which can be directed to educational ends.

In thinking about educational TV, we need to separate, insofar as we can, the inherent qualities of the medium from the use thus far made of it. Too often, adverse judgments about current or proposed uses of TV have apparently blocked more fruitful considerations of what can and should be done. This response is, of course, a natural consequence of the assertions from the other extreme that we have already entered the promised land.

Harold B. Dunkel is Professor of Education at the University of Chicago, Illinois. Reported from The Elementary School Journal, *LVIII (February 1958), 245–48.*

One set of considerations concerning TV grows out of what is sometimes referred to as "the richness of the medium." It is a truism to say that the educational potentiality of TV lies largely in its simultaneous appeal to both eye and ear, with one reinforcing the other. But this very richness raises questions on the theoretical level which seem scarcely to have been explored as yet. How much can the learner learn? Every public speaker knows that he should make only one point in any one talk. He may say it five different ways, tell a few stories, and add examples, but he knows that if he tries for more than one point he is likely to lose or to confuse his audience. The teacher probably tries to do more in a given class hour, but even he

has modest hopes. Educational TV presents some danger lest we count too heavily on the mutual reinforcement of the audio and the visual channels and simply try to present more than the student can absorb.

SHORTCOMINGS

In regard to current practice, my present opinion is that effective mutual reinforcement of the audio and the visual materials is as yet relatively rare. In the early days of educational TV the camera was simply focused on the teacher teaching. This procedure loaded the audio channel, but aside from the occasional use of the chalkboard or similar informal visual aids, the video circuit seemed largely wasted. This situation brought forth the criticism, "That's not really TV."

To meet this objection, workers have attempted to use more "visuals." Unfortunately, these often serve to distract attention rather than to reinforce the visual presentation, and the result is thus educationally bad. Bad visuals appear in a distressing variety of forms. For example, the attempt to portray a point which is essentially nonpicturable necessarily falls flat. Likewise, incompetent actors attract attention to their inept efforts rather than driving home the point they are supposed to illustrate. Or sometimes the teacher is so busy working his complicated visuals that the sound track contains little more than patter to avoid silence until the visuals are ready to go.

These are not, of course, faults of the medium. They are merely shortcomings of present practice. They indicate that workers in the medium are still feeling their way. Nonetheless, these failures do indicate that television is far from foolproof and far from perfected. People can, and do, use it for the wrong things, in the wrong way.

Another difficulty (again strictly a fault of present practices rather than a drawback inherent in the medium, though it is more closely related to the medium because of other uses made of it) is the temptation to confuse entertainment with education. As Dewey pointed out long ago, educational experiences are more effective when they are pleasant, but not all pleasant experiences are thereby rendered educational. The fact that a man is a well-known public figure or a distinguished worker in some scholarly field may make a given group of students more willing to listen. This is all to the good. But it does not necessarily follow that this personage can actually give the students what they need at this time. That pupils may be impressed and may listen attentively to some great figure does not necessarily mean they actually learn more from him.

STAR-STUDDED SHOWS?

Because commercial TV has great sensitivity to "viewer appeal" and to the size of the audience it can command, proponents of educational TV often seem to have a similar

longing for star-studded shows. Such performances may not be merely noneducational, they may be actually miseducational. If we are to take the adjective "educational" seriously in regard to television, we must be sure that we are actually doing what we seek to do.

NOT A LAME HORSE

How effective is educational TV? In the present writer's opinion, this question is still highly moot. In the early stages of experimentation, many workers with TV were content if fairly well-controlled experiments indicated that students learning through television were no worse off than students taught by conventional methods. At a recent conference on educational TV, "no significant differences" was a refrain which became almost a password for the meetings. Early workers in the field were content with this finding since it showed that at least they were not backing a lame horse. But as people have reflected on the amount of effort and money put into TV programs and installations, merely to draw the game seemed hardly sufficient. If television is presumably a superior teaching medium because sight and sound reinforce each other, instruction through television should prove itself superior.

The fundamental problem is, of course, one of measurement. All the experimental evidence to date can be questioned on the ground that our present tests may not be measuring the right things. One may argue, consequently, that present tests have done less than justice either to traditional instruction or to TV instruction. Many of the experiments have limited the evaluation purely or primarily to testing the extent to which facts have been taught. Whether we like to admit it or not, probably much of our past instruction has been pointed at teaching facts. Television apparently drives in facts just as well as does the living teacher, and it can reach more students at one time. If we think the living teacher can and should do more than this, we should certainly make sure that he does. If educational TV can do these things, too, and do them better, we should certainly strive to discover how to use the medium for these ends. We will need to improve very considerably the measures by which we judge controlled experiments before we have a final answer to the questions of how effective television is and for what.

This writer sincerely hopes that those working with educational TV will push ahead. If, to the outsider, present achievements do not appear impressive, future potentialities do. In any case, the efforts of the experimenters have already put the flesh-and-blood teacher on his mettle. If the development of TV makes the non-TV teacher more selfconscious about his teaching and if this awareness leads to improvement, this result alone would justify the effort and the money expended on television. •

Mores and Traditions Are Stronger

The Law Isn't the Last Word

ROY C. WOODS

In The School Executive

TWO types of law govern the operation of schools. An educator can ill afford to ignore either in the interest of successful operations of the school and the security of tenure. There are statutes and court decisions on the one hand, and the mores, traditions, and customs found in all communities, on the other. The mores, contrary to popular opinion, are usually stronger than written laws as many case histories will show.

School law throughout the 48 states reflects the influence of mores and traditions very markedly. This is readily seen in varying laws, court interpretations, and decisions which are found in connection with almost any phase of the school program. Attempts to evade the law or court decision also reflect the varying mores and traditions of the people in different areas.

One example is the way some southern states are now trying to use a broad interpretation of the police power to evade or delay compliance with the Supreme Court decision on desegregation. Other attempts, such as abolishing state public schools and appropriating money to private schools, have been devised, which, of course, are prohibited in the letter of the law. This is a prime example of how mores and traditions affect acceptance and compliance of the law. The idea of racial segregation is so much a part of the belief and teaching of the older people in the South that the sentiment can now be paralleled to the pre-Civil War situation. One could safely say that here mores and traditions are really more binding on a people than a written law which does not conform to beliefs.

Roy C. Woods is Professor of Education, Marshall College, Huntington, West Virginia. Reported from The School Executive, *LXXVII (February 1958), 62–65.*

Let us now speak of other laws or decisions in which the effect of mores and traditions is readily apparent. An important example is to be found in federal aid to education. Since education has always been a function of the state and control of schools has been in local boards, people generally have believed that acceptance of federal aid would mean relinquishing some local control. A huge highway appropriation passed, yet the one for education with a segregation amendment failed, illustrating a case in which mores and traditions have recently affected education.

The idea of local control, based on mores and traditions, also is

evident in the number of small school districts everywhere. Although educational leaders, and many average citizens, have long realized the economy of larger districts, many small communities still insist on keeping their own small school under the control of the local board.

In the school, teachers act *in loco parentis,* which means that while pupils are under the teacher's control he stands in place of the parent in disciplinary matters. Therefore, unless there are statutory or regulatory provisions to the contrary, teachers may discipline their pupils by corporal punishment. But statutory and common law rules restrict corporal punishment. Under common law, the force must be "reasonable." And mores and traditions, customs and beliefs have played an important part in court interpretation of "reasonable" corporal punishment. The written laws vary from complete prohibitions of such in New Jersey to a decision in Colorado where even death is unpunishable in certain circumstances. Traditionally, the teacher is master of the school or schoolroom. And this is a belief that has served to delay laws prohibiting corporal punishment in most states, even though educational research has indicated that prophylactic discipline is far superior to remedial discipline and that corporal punishment should be used only as a last resort.

The traditional belief that education is the right of every child led to compulsory attendance laws. Although these laws have been challenged as taking control of the child away from his parents, the courts have consistently held that parents may not deprive a child of his natural rights to free education. This belief also led to the passing of child labor laws under which parents or guardians, just as employers, are punishable for failure to obey. When one compares this with the legal or common law principles of corporal punishment, it may be seen that the influence of mores and traditions regarding the rights and freedoms of individuals depends largely on the community's approval and the pressure this brings on enforcement officials.

MORE INFLUENCE LAWS

Many laws and court interpretations have been called for in cases which have involved the traditional separation of church and state. Released time for sectarian instruction, wearing of religious garb by public-school teachers, use of schools by church groups, and use of churches for schools in emergencies have come up for attention. A practice in one state or locality may create no dissension, while the same practice elsewhere may be contested immediately. Here again, the laws of the state reflect cases which have arisen from circumstances created or influenced by mores and traditions.

Another example of the influence of mores and traditions is the concept of the police power of the

state. This term was defined in a case in South Dakota in 1914:

"It is clear all police power is based on necessity and on the inherent right of selfpreservation possessed by all political bodies, and is, therefore, a power which has been recognized from the time men first associated together; it is that inherent or plenary power which enables the states to prohibit all things hurtful to the comfort, safety, and welfare of society, and may be termed the law of ever-ruling necessity."

Health examinations and vaccinations have been held legal under this power. But the interpretation of the police power continues to rest heavily on mores and traditions and the expediency of the circumstances.

Teachers more than any other school employes are restricted in political activities and conduct. This statement is not substantiated by the existence of state laws. School-board rules, written and unwritten, have probably been the source of this tradition. Here the mores and traditions of the community have a more abiding influence than written laws. No matter how narrow the ideas and attitudes of the school community, the teacher has little choice but to conform.

This influence is exemplified by a case in Pennsylvania in 1939 when a teacher was dismissed for working as bartender in her husband's lunchroom and beer garden, where she took an occasional drink of beer and played games of dice and pinball machines. A broad interpretation of immorality and incompetency led the court to affirm the action of the board. Had this occurred in another locality a much different interpretation may have resulted, reflecting the mores and traditions of a different background.

Traditionally, men have been the breadwinners of the family and for two centuries this idea was the basis for paying men teachers a larger salary for equal training and positions than was paid a woman teacher. With the coming of suffrage rights to women and the recognition of women's rights, the thinking about equal pay for equal qualifications for men and women has been modified. Running parallel to this was the idea that secondary teachers were more skilled than elementary teachers and that, consequently, they should be paid more. This iniquitous situation remained in some localities even after the qualifications were changed.

In 1937 there was a case in Indiana courts in which a part of the salary schedule that denied married women teachers the increment of $60 per year for each year of experience up to a maximum of $600, was held invalid. The decision was based on the classification of married women as being unreasonable, arbitrary, or capricious. Here again, mores, traditions, and beliefs about what is reasonable have carried much weight in court decisions. Such cases have been instrumental in establishing a single salary schedule. •

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Mr. Lincoln on the Enduring Danger

JAMES RESTON

In The New York Times

THE text of this morning's sermon is taken from an address by Mr. Lincoln to a young men's lyceum in Springfield, Illinois, on January 27, 1837.

"At what point," he asked, "shall we Americans expect the approach of danger? By what means shall we fortify against it? Shall we expect some trans-Atlantic military giant to step the ocean and crush us at a blow? Never!

"All the armies of Europe, Asia, and Africa combined, with all the treasure of the earth (our own excepted) in their military chest, with a Bonaparte for a commander, could not by force take a drink from the Ohio or make a track on the Blue Ridge in a trial of a thousand years.

"At what point, then, is the approach of danger to be expected? I answer, if it ever reaches us it must spring up amongst us; it cannot come from abroad. If destruction be our lot we must ourselves be its author and finisher. As a nation of free men we must live through all time or die by suicide."

This is almost as good as anything ever written by Bryce Harlow for Sherman Adams, and it is as topical as "My Fair Lady."

For while missiles, rockets, launching sites, and military affairs in general still dominate the headlines and the debates in Congress, the unresolved crisis of our times, underlying all other crises, is not primarily military but ideological, not external but internal, not mechanical but cultural.

James Reston is Chief Washington Correspondent for The New York Times, *New York City. Reported from* The New York Times *(February 16, 1958), 8E.*

The point, of course, is relative. The military threat is real and grave; nobody denies it. Mr. Lincoln did not have to worry about trans-Atlantic rockets or atomic power in the hands of an enemy and Mr. Eisenhower does. But the country is aware of the military threat; it is taking steps to deal with it. The same cannot be said with equal assurance about our internal defenses in the fields of education, philosophy, or diplomacy.

Congress will give the Pentagon all it wants for missiles, and probably more, but what it will do about scholarships, teachers' salaries, school construction, the foreign service—what lead it will give the people on how to meet the crisis at the personal and community level—is another matter.

"I hope I am over wary," Mr. Lincoln said to his lyceum friends

in Springfield. "But if I am not, there is even now something of ill omen amongst us."

His appeal, 121 years ago, was not to the federal capital in Washington, but to individual men and women in their communities. He was not asking what Washington could do to help the people, but what the people could do to help Washington, and, fortunately, the same need is felt today.

Nothing is clearer here now than that the federal government is not going to solve the education problem, and could not, even if the men at the top thought in terms of ideas and brains, which they do not. They will make some money available, no doubt, but they will not set a national standard for high-school graduation, badly as it is needed, and they cannot set standards of study in the home.

The trouble in the land, said Robert Oppenheimer recently in *Foreign Affairs,* is that the American people have no clear image of the good life or the government's place in it. One wonders. The trouble is that we do have such a clear image of the good and easy life that nobody even debates it. It is based on the assumption that the production and consumption or enjoyment of material things guaranteed by the government is in itself the good and easy life, and the crisis is that this assumption has failed us.

In past national crises there was little that ordinary citizens could do to help. They could not produce missiles. They could not get the Vanguard off the ground. They could not pierce the Soviet mystery.

But they can sit on school boards. They can inquire into the state of education in their local schools. They can demand standards of study. They can influence their children to prepare for and serve the nation, and they can listen to Mr. Lincoln.

"Passion has helped us," he said, "but can do so no more. Reason—cold, calculating, unimpassioned reason—must furnish all the materials for our future support and defense. Let those materials be molded into general intelligence [and] sound morality. . . ."

Here, as the man said, endeth the lesson. •

The World Today

• Some of our schools are getting so crowded that any place that's hollow, they have a class in it.—From *Midland Schools.*

• It now costs more to amuse a child than it did to educate his father.—From *The ATA Magazine.*

• You may send a message around the world in one-seventh of a second, yet it may take years to force a simple idea through a quarter inch of human skull.—*C. F. Kettering.*

1958

Three Guiding Principles

Ethical and Spiritual Resources

WILLIAM H. KILPATRICK

In Childhood Education

ETHICS deserves a very high place among educational aims. In fact, I would say emphatically that the chief business of adults is to help those in their care to develop all-around desirable characters. Each experience and each act of each child leaves its character effect. It is, accordingly, my business in writing this article to help adults so to guide and direct the experiences of children that these may discover and use their appropriate inner resources in a manner that develops proper ethical and spiritual possibilities.

At this point the term *spiritual* demands consideration. Many think of this term as limited to the religious aspect of life. But democratic America, committed to separation of church and state, cannot teach religion in its public schools. By the most liberal interpretation, the term *spiritual* is not restricted to the religious. Among others, Webster offers the following definitions: "not material"; "mental, intellectual; also highly refined in thought or feeling"; "of or pertaining to the moral feelings."

Perhaps we can get our most helpful conception of the term *spiritual* from the noun *spirit,* as used in the following quotations: "The letter killeth, but the *spirit* giveth life" (2 Cor. 5:8); "It is the manner and *spirit* of a people which preserves a republic in vigor" (Thomas Jefferson); "It is not thy works but the *spirit* thou workest in that hath worth" (Thomas Carlyle). Putting these considerations together we can see that the terms *ethical* and *spiritual* are intimately related, the term *spiritual* stressing the chief intent of the term *ethical.*

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Now we can return to the essential problem: How can we adults help children to discover and use their "ethical and spiritual resources" for the effective building of appropriate characters?

To answer this we have to begin with certain psychological problems: What does the verb *to learn* properly mean? How is such learning effected? To answer the first we may say that anything—a thought, a feeling, a bodily movement—*has been learned* in the degree that it can be counted on thereafter to get back into life to play there its proper part whenever the learner feels the need for it. Anything so learned has thereby been fixed

in character, for this is how character behaves.

And now for the second psychological principle: What brings such learning? What so fixes this new way of behavior into one's being that it can be counted on to come forward into use when the learner feels it is needed? The answer is that behaving will do it, behaving this way provided one does in his heart accept this as his own personal way of behaving. It is behaving with full inner acceptance that brings learning. We can repeat this another way, using the first person:

I learn the way I behave and I learn that way in the degree that I accept it as my way of behaving, and in the degree that I understand it and can and do fit it in with what I already know and believe. What I thus learn I thereby build into my character.

The degree of learning shows itself partly by the length of time it stays with us ready to come back to experience when needed. But degree of learning may also show itself by its insistence on getting back into consideration. There are some things we wish we could forget.

FOR MORAL CONDUCT

For the moral conduct of children three guiding principles may be named: (1) they must always tell the truth; (2) they must always act honestly; and (3) they must respect the rights and feelings of others. These three seem to sum up the more distinctive moral obligations of young people.

Our duties as adults with regard to these three guiding principles of child morality are also threefold: First, we must see that these three demands are *clearly understood;* understood, that is, in terms of their life experiences, life as they see it. Second, we must get as full a commitment as we can for these principles, full commitment of each child if we can so manage it. Third, we must, as far as we can, see that each child does live up to the demands of these three principles. Of these three adult duties the first will be the easiest to meet, and the third will be the most difficult.

FOUR RESOURCES

Coming back to the wording of our topic and task, the term *inner resources,* if we follow the broader theme, calls for special consideration. What *inner resources* are available in young children whereby we can help get them to obey these three specific moral demands? What is there in young children to which we teachers and parents can appeal as we try to guide them in behaving morally and thereby develop desirable moral characters? Four resources will be named, which will recognizably have different appeals to different children.

1. Recognition that people generally expect such behavior from everybody. This appeal will meet a hearty response from some, but

less hearty response from others. Indeed with some maladjusted ones the appeal may arouse not obedience but antagonism.

2. Approval of their peers. This is clearly the strongest appeal of all if it can be secured.

3. Inner personal approval and consequent appeal as the child sees and feels the reason for such a principle. This can be a stronger appeal with a few more disarming ones, but not all will feel it.

4. Inner personal approval of having a high ideal and living up to it. This will be felt by very few of the younger ones, but some of the better developed may feel it. Wherever it is present there is high promise for the future. •

Ethical and Spiritual Values — Children's Views

• "Bobby," said the teacher sternly, "do you know you have broken the Eighth Commandment by stealing Jimmy's apple?"

"Well," explained Bobby, "I might just as well break the Eighth Commandment and have the apple as to break the Tenth and only covet it."—John Harold in *Midland Schools.*

• The class had been reading the story of Moses. Afterwards one boy asked, "Did Moses have the same after-dinner illness my pop's got?" Puzzled, the teacher asked him what he meant. "Well," he said, "it says here the Lord gave Moses two tablets."—From *North Carolina Education.*

• The teacher had asked her small pupils to tell about their acts of kindness to dumb animals. After several heart-stirring stories, the teacher asked Tommy if he had anything to add. "Well," he replied rather proudly, "I kicked a boy once for kicking his dog."—From *Mississippi Educational Advance.*

• My grandson was telling me about his Sunday-school lesson. "A man went out on the Jericho road," he said, "and some thieves jumped on him and beat him up and left him all bleeding beside the road. And some people went by on the other side and wouldn't help him. And then a good *American* came along and he gave him some money and bound up his wounds."—William C. Smyser in *College and University.*

Nationalism and Education

I. L. KANDEL

In The Year Book of Education—1957

THE oldest aim of education and the most persistent has been to induct the children and youth into membership in the group or society to which they belong. They must learn to conform to the culture pattern of their group.

Education has always been regarded primarily as a social process, a process of socialization. The process consists essentially in the transmission of the group or social culture in order to awaken and inculcate a sense of consciousness of kind and a feeling of group loyalty in order to be accepted as a member as well as for the preservation of the whole group as a solidarity sharing the same ideas and ideals.

Nationalism, however, is a complex of forces—past, present, and future—that serve to assure the solidarity of a group of people. Already conscious of their community of interests which have grown out of common history and traditions—sometimes even on the basis of a "myth" created for the purpose—the members of the group feel a certain consciousness of kind among themselves through forms of speech and communication, through habitual ways of doing, living, and thinking, and, sometimes more particularly, through recognition of their differences from members of other groups.

I. L. Kandel is Professor Emeritus of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City. Reported from Education and Philosophy; The Year Book of Education, 1957, *edited by George Bereday and Joseph Lauwerys (World Book Company), 130–42.*

Nationalism, therefore, implies a community of ideas, ideals, and beliefs which is consummated by two conditions which must be present —location or common territory, and government or common loyalties to a political ideal. Added is love of the land where one lives, a love which is both material and spiritual — material through habituation and custom, and spiritual through historical associations and a type of ancestor worship. The latter is exemplified particularly in the connotation of the French *la patrie;* it is found in one of the American national anthems in the line, "Land where my fathers died." Finally, the national selfconsciousness which is nationalism is strengthened by such symbols as national flags, national anthems, national heroes, and patriotic societies.

In developing a philosophy of education the important element of nationalism—that is, those forces,

particularly spiritual and cultural, that make up a nation's *ethos* and culture pattern—cannot be ignored. Efforts have been made to elaborate universal philosophies of education. However logical and humane such philosophies may be, they have always been subject to modifications in the light of a nation's culture pattern or they have run counter to the political objectives of the state in control of education.

NATIONAL SYSTEMS

As education of peoples developed, the adage, "As is the state, so is the school," became a universally accepted principle in those countries that followed the German or French practices. Napoleon's dictum that "there cannot be a firmly established political state unless there is a teaching body with definitely recognized principles" was generally accepted. The major aim of such systems of education has been to produce loyal, patriotic citizens.

This aim would in itself be beyond criticism if it implied only the development of deep understanding and appreciation of, as well as affection for, one's cultural heritage. But an aspect of nationalism was developed which rendered the aim open to criticism. The types of loyalty and patriotism which were engendered in the emotions of children and youth tended to emphasize the superiority of one's own nation over others, whether from the point of view of power, or wealth and resources, or of cultural development. Accompanying this emphasis there was the tendency to stress not community of interest or common humanity of all men but those features of conduct and speech (or even food and dress habits) that made the foreigner different from the native. To these aspects of nationalism there was added the emphasis on military prowess—the glories of the battlefield as more patriotic achievements than the glories of peaceful development.

While in Europe the principle of education as subject to state control was being carried out, in America another principle was enunciated by George Washington. In his Farewell Address he stressed the importance of the diffusion of knowledge, for "in proportion as the structure of government gives force to public opinion, that opinion should be enlightened." The control of education in the United States was left to the people through their elected representatives in their own local areas and subsequently in cooperation with the states. While decentralization of this kind has some disadvantages so far as the provisions of equal educational opportunities are concerned, it has the advantage of permitting each locality to develop a curriculum content which responds more closely to its culture pattern.

In England fear lest the state might use education as an instrument of national policy and em-

ploy it to mould the minds of the young according to its own pleasure delayed the establishment of a state system of education. Unlike those countries that followed the model of Prussia and France, the state went into partnership with local educational authorities; curriculum matters were not prescribed by the central authority but "suggested."

It was not until the Education Act of 1944 was passed that the Ministry of Education was given the right to exercise a measure of control when it became desirable.

The study of nationalism as a force in determining the character of the education imparted in the schools indicates that it may be achieved in two ways. Either it may be achieved by relating the work of the schools to the culture pattern of the environment, developing an understanding of the life that surrounds and influences the pupils and a certain pride in their group culture; or it may be achieved by direct indoctrination, by the cult of loyalty and unquestioning obedience to the dictates of the state, by the inculcation of a feeling of superiority of one's own nation over others in power, culture, wealth, heroic traditions, and so on, a feeling which results in an aggressive attitude to the peoples of other nations and an emphasis on differences rather than on the common elements which could form a bond of union between men.

To achieve thorough indoctrination in nationalism of the second type, the narrow aggressive type, more importance is attached to certain subjects in the school curriculum than to others, and to the organized activities of children and youth outside the school. The study of patriotic songs and poems, of history and geography, and even physical training may be directed to the end of patriotic indoctrination. In geography the extent of empire or the lands lost in war and to be regained may be given special emphasis. Physical training may lay the foundation for paramilitary training and be further extended in youth organizations out of school.

But the most important of the subjects stressed for nationalistic indoctrination has been history. It is not without interest that the history program has always been the first to be modified or changed after a revolution.

In 1929 the teaching of history in Italian schools was suspended until new textbooks with a Fascist slant were published. The first change to be prescribed for the whole of Germany after the Nazi Revolution was in the history course. In the USSR the content of the history program and of textbooks in the subject has been changed with changes in party policy. And in the United States history textbooks, highly regarded by specialists in the subject, have been censored or even banned by the public in different parts of the country as unAmerican, or international in tone. The use of history

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for nationalistic indoctrination has stimulated a movement to promote the revision of textbooks that contain material likely to arouse hostility or contempt of other nations.

CULTURAL NATIONALISM

The development of the concept of nationalism may be watched in the rise of the many new nations in the post-war period either by the achievement of independence or by local selfdetermination or by the organization of loosely aggregated groups into nations. Associated with their development is the enactment of compulsory education laws to be enforced either immediately or when schools are available. In the absence of systems of local government the conduct of education is in most cases centralized. Most of the issues that have in the past been associated with the concept of nationalism have had to be taken into consideration in the process of establishing the new nations, which, in addition to an aggressive cult of the new-won independence, also harbor an intensified feeling of resentment against the government and peoples that had previously controlled them. The rights of the minorities, whether racial or linguistic, have been safeguarded. Religious homogeneity is no longer insisted on and, where religious instruction is included in the curriculum, pupils may receive instruction in the religion of their own denomination or be exempted from such instruction entirely. The problem of the language of instruction in those nations where bilingual or multilingual groups exist has been solved by permitting pupils to be taught in their mother tongue up to a certain stage and requiring them to learn the state or regional language thereafter. In the USSR each member nation is autonomous in the choice of language to be used in the schools; each nation is also encouraged to preserve its own cultural traditions; the only proviso is that Russian be taught and the Russian texts in translation be used. In several Latin-American countries it has been recognized that the Indian minorities cannot be educated successfully in the national language (Spanish), and experiments have been initiated to develop their dialects for instructional purposes and to help them to preserve their cultures.

Even before the recent emergence of these new nations a trend towards cultural nationalism had already begun. For example, steps were taken in Turkey and China to require private schools conducted by foreigners to appoint natives as principals and to employ natives to teach such subjects as history, civics, and national literature. This practice has spread since World War II, and the new nations in the Orient and older nations in Latin America have adopted regulations requiring that subjects especially relevant to national indoctrination be taught by natives in both public and private schools.

There has also been a resurgence

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of militant and aggressive nationalism in the years following World War II. This has been marked by many of the characteristics of primitive tribalism. There is to be found in this revival the distinction between We and They, the emphasis on superiority and power, suspicion if not hatred of the foreigner, and sensitiveness to religious, linguistic, and ideological differences. Politically each nation is jealous of its sovereignty and tends to consider any step for the promotion of international understanding and cooperation as an encroachment on its sovereign rights.

The issue that is posed is not the adoption of a supra-national government or of cosmopolitanism as an ideal. The fundamental issue is to determine whether there can be any escape from nationalism in the sense of the national ways of living, thinking, and behaving as the cultural pattern of a people.

The interdependence of nations which has always existed has been enhanced in the 20th Century as the means of communication and transportation have been improved. The history of man shows that his progress has been retarded by war but advanced by the development and exchange of ideas. Each nation has had and still has something to contribute and something that is essentially its own. Such a conception of nationalism, which corresponds to the personality of the individual, would contain in it nothing incompatible with the ideal of internationalism.

There are, then, two aspects of nationalism—the aggressive, militant type and the type that represents the natural response and expression of human beings to the environment or culture pattern in which they have their being and through which they grow intellectually and spiritually. Both aspects must be taken into account in the elaboration of a philosophy of education. If such a philosophy is universal in its scope, the task is to show how aggressive nationalism must be rejected as inimical to the interests of humanity; nationalism as a natural expression of a particular culture pattern can be incorporated in a philosophy of education developed *sub specie deternitatis.*

Such a philosophy can be pertinently summarized in the words of Jacques Maritain: "Of course the job of education is not to shape the Platonic man-in-himself, but to shape a particular child belonging to a given nation, a given social environment, a given historical age. Yet before being a child of the 20th Century, an American-born or European-born child, the child is a child of man. Before being a civilized man—at least I hope I am—and a Frenchman nurtured in Parisian intellectual circles, I am a man."

How to reconcile the idea of man as the human being and man as a national is the problem of reconciling philosophy of education and nationalism, which is, in fact, the task defined for Unesco. •

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And besides it's not honest. You "Because I was afraid the kids

Who Spilled the Red Paint?

Six-Year-Olds Are Wonderful

ELEANOR PHILIPS

In Grade Teacher

EVEN after many years of teaching, I am awed and thrilled when I think of the strength of character six-year-olds display. And I remember, in particular, one time when I was speechless with surprise and wonder at the bravery of little boys and girls in a first-grade room in which I was the teacher.

Every Monday, Wednesday, and Friday afternoon we had rhythms. The children learned *basic* rhythms —skipping, running, hopping, leaping. They had *creative* rhythms, and they had *interpretative* rhythms, during which they listened to music, and then did what they felt the music told them to do. As the semester progressed, the children became more and more skilled. And they just loved it.

Of course I took advantage of this and used it as a means of control. As with Gregory. All I needed to say was a gentle, "Gregory, if you can't settle down, you'll have to sit and watch during rhythms." It would work like magic; Gregory would immediately use selfcontrol and go to work. However, sometimes it was necessary to carry out the threat and actually have a child "sit and watch" as punishment for misbehaving. And it *was* a punishment.

One day while I was conducting a reading lesson with some of the children, others were doing creative work. As they worked, there was a sudden hush, and a voice squealed, "Somebody spilled the red paint!"

"Who spilled the red paint?" I asked. No one owned up. Then I asked Neal, an earnest little boy, always eager to help, if he would please clean up the paint.

Next came "discussion." Today we had an appropriate topic. I began by telling the class that I was very disappointed that the person who spilled the paint wouldn't admit it, and I wondered what the class thought about it.

Nancy stood up. A good student and a great talker, she gave her views about the incident. She concluded, "And anyway, I think he should admit it," and sat down.

Gregory stood up. His was not a pleasant home. Usually he was lost in the crowd. But lately he had gained some selfconfidence and had found a place for himself in the group. He began, "I don't think the person who spilled the paint is being fair . . . because he didn't tell. Neal had to clean up.

Eleanor Philips is a teacher in Cleveland, Ohio. Reported from Grade Teacher, *LXXV, (January 1958), 95.*

And besides it's not honest. You should tell if you do a thing because then you're honest."

The children went on with their discussion. They were so serious! I felt proud of the fine way they were expressing all the ideas they had been taught—only we couldn't find out who had spilled the red paint. I suppose I could have given a lecture and then forgotten the incident, but on principle I felt I should know who was afraid to admit such a small thing. So I told the class that they had had a fine discussion; however, I was very sorry that we still didn't know who had spilled the red paint. I said that if we didn't find out who did it we couldn't have rhythms that afternoon. I wouldn't embarrass anyone, I said, but whoever had done it could come in the room any time during the lunch period and tell me privately.

I had never done anything so drastic. I didn't believe in punishing the whole group because of one person. Frankly I didn't know what else to do. The children filed out quietly, their lunches in their hands, looking as if the world were about to end.

No sooner had I sat down and begun to eat my lunch than little Gregory shuffled in. "Mrs. Philips, I . . . I . . . spilled the red paint and I'm sorry. You won't tell anyone, will you?"

I spoke as kindly as possible, "No, I won't tell, but why, Gregory? That wan't fair, just as you said. Why didn't you tell us?"

"Because I was afraid the kids would laugh. Now can we have rhythms?"

I wanted to hug him. Gregory had enough to be ashamed of. Of course he would do anything to avoid ridicule in front of the group. I should have realized this. Very seriously I assured him that we would indeed have rhythms and that I appreciated his coming in so bravely.

Not two minutes later Neal walked in. "I spilled the red paint." His eyes were on his toes. "I know it was wrong and I'm sorry. Now can we all have rhythms?"

I controlled a smile. "Thank you for coming in, Neal. It is a very fine thing you're doing. Yes, we'll have rhythms."

A few minutes later, in walked Nancy. "I spilled the red paint and I should have told. I'm sorry. Now can we have rhythms?"

This was too much. How many martyrs would there be! "Yes, Nancy, we'll have rhythms. Thank you for coming in, but why didn't you tell me in class?"

She hesitated, "I don't know. But I told now."

"Yes. Yes, you did, indeed."

She skipped out happily. Me? I was speechless. It didn't matter who had spilled the red paint. Three children had shown me something beautiful. Never again did I threaten to punish a whole class for the act of one individual. But I was thrilled. And, as on many other occasions, I thought, "Six-year-olds are wonderful!" •

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Some Basic Difficulties

Sex Education in the Public Schools and Factors Affecting It

NOLAN C. KEARNEY

In Social Hygiene Papers

SEX education, broadly defined, involves a comprehensive course of action by the schools calculated to bring about the socially desirable attitudes, practices, and personal conduct on the part of children and adults that will best protect the individual as a human and the family as a social institution.

When defined in this manner, it is clear that sex education is much more than instruction in the known facts about reproduction. And it is a far cry from being a store of sex information and misinformation designed to frighten young people and single people into sex morality and sex conformity until marriage spreads its sheltering arms.

Sex education is far more comprehensive than we were once prone to think. We now regard sex education against the whole background of modern life. Sex education has been developed as an organic part of the whole educational pattern and many courses in the schools and experiences in school and daily life make valuable contributions. If we consider sex education as it has been defined above, it clearly cannot be taught at a given time in a specified class by a single qualified expert and then be dismissed as finished.

Nolan C. Kearney is Assistant Superintendent of the St. Paul, Minnesota, Public Schools. *Reported from* Social Hygiene Papers; A Symposium on Sex Education, *published by the American Social Hygiene Association, New York City, (November 1957) 12–17.*

It might appear from what has been said thus far that the main objectives of sex education, having been established and validated, it only remains to maximize and refine them. This would be only a half truth. There remain some basic difficulties.

First, in our culture the use of certain words as symbols is taboo. In fact, this taboo extends beyond mere words. There are things about which we may talk, and there are those which must be mentioned only rarely and then in periphrastic terms. Among the latter, there are great differences between regions and between socio-economic groups, between mixed groups as compared to those made up of one sex, between friends and strangers, and between family and nonfamily members. So strong is the prohibition about certain words related to sex, the genitalia, and the excretory functions that feel-

ings of embarrassment and guilt become attached to the mere thought of the words and what they mean. These cultural prohibitions and reticences with their attached feelings of embarrassment and guilt place great obstacles in the way of sex education.

Second, the application of divine law to sex behavior presents certain difficulties in the public-school situation. The schools can and inevitably do educate concerning the moralities of sex behavior that are accepted (actively or passively) as ideals by all of the people. Difficulties appear, however, when issues regarding explicit sex morality arise about which various religions do not agree. Difficulties to the public school arise in part from the inability to draw lines between the aspects of sex that are considered secular or public and those that are considered to be moral and spiritual in nature, and hence, primarily or exclusively the province of the church.

RESEARCH LACKING

Third, we suffer from a lack of definitive research regarding sex education. We can see a need and decide that "something ought to be done." At present, however, we know little about how (not to say how best) to achieve desired objectives in the field of sex education. We need financial assistance to carry on research in this area. We need research designed to reveal what children are able to learn and understand at various ages. We need to find out what children already know or think they know. We need to know when instruction should be individual and private.

As a corollary to all of this, we should have greater dissemination of the research already available and some of its possible implications. Perhaps a group of mature and widely capable educators, psychologists, sociologists, social hygienists, biologists, physicians, students of child growth and development, students of human relations, probation officers, and others could, if properly endowed, collect, summarize, and interpret a large amount of available research as it relates to sex education, broadly conceived.

Fourth, we need teachers who are proficient in sex education. Many teachers can do what some of us regard as an exceptionally fine job in this area. (Of course, this merely means that they do things with children that we think should have excellent outcomes in the future behavior of those they teach.) Many others, however, are stopped before they begin. They are unable to use the words that must be used in such instruction. They are embarrassed and they show it. The suspicion persists, however, that the great proportion of people who are good teachers of children would be equally good teachers in this area *if* they were prepared. We need courage—yes—but we need something more—we need know-how based on research.

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Fifth, we are faced with new and difficult sex-education problems in our modern technological world. Some things that have modified our problem are modern transportation (for example, anonymity may be less than an hour away); modern housing (we live intimately but as strangers with our neighbors); advertising (we are taught to be glamorous, popular, and to demand luxury); we have alcohol easily accessible; we have some common and early knowledge of contraceptives; we have much venereal disease control; we have sensational literature; and the home seems more sterile as a cultural center and a center of family life. Of course, modern transportation, modern housing, advertising, venereal disease control, and increased printing represent great improvements in our way of life. At the same time, they have raised or aggravated other problems.

Though these things may be viewed with alarm, there is much that is good to offset them. Children stay much longer in school and education is improved; church membership is up; churches are assuming more responsibility for youth activities; there are better and more extensive recreational activities for youth and adults; adult and part-time education is increasing in enrolment; good books in cheap editions are being published in increasingly fabulous numbers; and the sale of good recordings continues to amaze the "longhairs."

A sixth, and, for the present, a final consideration is the difficulty of interpreting education to the public. Public education is dependent on public support and direction. The present temper of much current criticism tends to make administrators hesitant to initiate or enlarge programs that may be misunderstood. Imagine critics charging that free love is being advocated, that children are being taught to transgress "safely," that teachers and children engage together in "dirty talk" in school, that sex is presented as clean and beautiful, and so on *ad nauseum*. Programs must be most carefully presented.

Perhaps none of these difficulties should deter us indefinitely. Undoubtedly, they will slow us down. The basic obstacles are lack of knowledge, lack of training, lack of instructional materials, questions involving religion, cultural reticence, and vulnerability to unfounded criticism; all of this against the background of a situation that has been created or intensified by various instrumentalities of modern technology. Opposed to all obstacles, of course, are the obvious needs.

Perhaps the best course to follow is to intensify and improve what we have been doing with apparent success for many years. Perhaps an approach can be devised that is more largely cooperative with home and church. Perhaps foundation resources can hasten and intensify research, including action research.•

What Should You Look For?

Supervising the Teaching of Arithmetic

HERBERT T. OLANDER

In Education

SCHOOL personnel engaged in supervising arithmetic instruction, whether these individuals are generalists like elementary principals or specialists such as arithmetic supervisors, must be sensitive to, and skilled in, the general aspects of instruction and leadership that apply to all learning areas. And they need to study the specific problems that apply particularly to arithmetic. What are some of these latter?

Certainly this is one of them: Are the recognized goals of arithmetic instruction being realized? The traditional arithmetic teacher was absorbed with the mechanics of number manipulation. But the modern teacher does not feel that her task has been adequately achieved if, in addition to this implied goal, a pupil does not have a fundamental grasp of our number system, a clear understanding of arithmetic concepts and the various number relationships involved, a thorough awareness of the social uses of number, the ability to apply number manipulations to practical life situations, and an intense interest in the study of numbers.

Probably most important among these goals is that of the pupils' having clear meanings. On the windshield of a supervisor's thinking during supervisory visits everlasting should be the question, "Do children fundamentally, or only superficially, understand what the teacher is attempting to teach?"

Herbert T. Olander is Professor of Elementary Education, University of Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. *Reported from Education, LXXVIII (February 1958), 374–80.*

In a fourth-grade room a teacher was dealing with the concept "average." First she and the children added the cost of four pairs of shoes which a mother had bought for her children, namely, $6.00, $4.00, $2.95, and $3.75. This came to $16.70. To the teacher's question the children promptly called this the "sum." They then divided by 4 (the number of items) and got $4.17 with 2 cents remaining. Nobody had any idea what the result of this division represented. When they were told that this was the "average cost of the shoes" there seemed to be a little light cast through the fog of their thinking. The teacher tried another example. On three different days last week, she said, she spent on gasoline for her automobile $3.20, $2.40, and $2.00. This

added up to $7.60. How to find the average? A boy suggested dividing by three (the number of items), so this was done. The teacher looked at this manipulation and said, shaking her head, "No, since there are seven days in a week we had better divide by 7," which they did. The children looked confused at this turn of events. In the first example the "average" was arrived at by dividing the sum by the number of items. In the last example the number of items was 3 but because there were 7 days in a week the divisor this time was made 7. What success the teacher has had since in establishing a fundamental grasp of "average" is not known to the writer. Surely the approach she made on this occasion was not a fruitful one.

A supervisor needs to ask: Are the goals set for a particular school grade or for a particular group of children appropriate? He must familiarize himself with the arithmetic goals or expectations that can probably be achieved by children at each advancing chronological age or maturity level. He will know that the attempt, so often made, to teach the concept "average" in the fourth grade, which has been alluded to here, may not be successful and that it is questionable whether ordinary children in that grade can achieve any real grasp of this term. A teacher in a fourth grade was spending considerable time trying to familiarize the children with the terms "dividend," "minuend," and "subtrahend." These terms have little social value for children of this age and attempts to teach such terms at this level of maturity is one reason for many children's dislike for arithmetic.

The supervisor needs to have such knowledge and skill in arithmetic that he can recognize inadequacies in the teaching he observes and to have the ability to help his teachers. He must also have a reasonably good background in psychology, including a grasp of psychological theories, so that he can evaluate a teacher's techniques and discuss with her the probable learnings that will or will not result from use of her techniques. He needs to know the nature of the motivation for learning. He needs to ask if the learning is functional and whether the needs and interests of the children are being considered.

In many school rooms we seem to have progressed very little beyond the far-fetched, unnatural, nonchallenging types of problems that characterized the arithmetic instruction of yesteryear. One teacher, in an effort to give practice and concrete experience with the addition of fractions, had brought three children to the front of the room, had had each of the three turn himself around by ¼ of a revolution. How much had the three children turned altogether? It is difficult to imagine where any person, child or adult, would ever be faced by a problem such as this in real life. But another teacher

achieved success in interesting the children in arithmetic by applying it to the daily concerns of the children. For example, interest in decimal fractions was instilled by asking what was the changing batting average of a favorite home-run hitter in the local community.

OTHER OBSERVATIONS

The supervisor needs to observe what the teacher is doing to take account of individual differences in ability among her pupils. Too often, all of the children in a classroom are studying the same assignments in their textbooks, which of course is absurd in view of pupil differences. And the supervisor must make sure that the arithmetic being taught is integrated with other types of learnings in the school curriculum.

The supervisor must make sure that the school provides the teacher with a variety of teaching aids. Then the supervisor must know to what extent and how successfully the teacher uses them. A third-grade teacher was trying to teach her children to tell time. Faces of clocks had been *drawn* on the blackboard. Yet there was not a real clock of any kind in the classroom! But in a second grade another teacher was carrying on a unit of work on telling time. In her room was an egg timer, a sun dial, a Chinese water clock, an hour glass, a bottle or drip clock, and other devices.

Here is another important question for the supervisor to ask as he observes arithmetic teaching: Is there evidence that arithmetic learning by children is adequately and continuously being evaluated? Is the teacher making a practice of diagnosing individual and group learning difficulties and the probable causes for these? This question complements the first one raised at the outset of this discussion, namely, whether proper arithmetic objectives have been set.

Much attention has been given by teachers to evaluating the products of learning; too little to the processes of learning. Much concern has been devoted to measuring skill in number manipulation; insufficient consideration has been given to understandings, interests, and ability to use numbers in practical life situations. Much time has been spent on pencil and paper tests; not enough has been devoted to observation of pupil behavior, interest inventories, problem-situation tests, and interviews.

A supervisor needs to know not only what the outcomes from arithmetic instruction should be but how can each of these best be evaluated. Effective instruction is possible only if the progress by the pupils and their deficiencies are known. Is the teacher aware of these? If not, the supervisor should be able to offer suggestions. The kinds of evaluating devices that are used in classrooms originating either with the teacher or the administration have a decisive directing influence on the nature of the instruction. Sometimes this influence is a harmful one. •

1958

To Avoid Misunderstanding and Chagrin

Be an Effective Committee Member

CARLO VACCA

In The Massachusetts Teacher

WHAT I'm going to say could apply just as well to committee meetings, faculty meetings, or any kind of meeting where creative thinking is called for. Like yourselves, I have served on several kinds of committees literally hundreds of times. What follows is a discussion of several points born of sad experience and sober reflection. These points are offered in the hope they may spare you misunderstanding and chagrin, and help you to work effectively with committee colleagues.

Carlo Vacca is a member of the faculty at Gamaliel Bradford High School, Wellesley, Massachusetts. *Reported from* The Massachusetts Teacher, *XXXVII (February 1958), 7–8.*

First of all, don't be a know-it-all. No matter how smart you think you are, there is usually somebody who is smarter than you. Have faith in the professional background, integrity, and equipment of your colleagues. The experience of all of you is richer than the experience of any of you. The group as a whole can see more clearly, more truly, and further than its best member. So my first point would be: Have faith and confidence in your professional colleagues.

Next, a discussion of the new technique, the new policy, the new textbook list, or whatever is your topic, will result in better support than any fiat imposed autocratically from above. This does not mean absence of authority. The democratic process does recognize authority and responsibility derived from the group, and exercised for the best interests of the community. Full discussion of the minority view should be encouraged. It is the duty of the group leader to provide a climate in which the real thoughts of committee members will be stimulated to blossom and grow. Only when the group knows what is really on the minds of all the members will it be functioning realistically. So, my second point is: Have faith and confidence in the democratic process.

The next point seems so obvious it shouldn't be necessary to mention it here. It is: Define your terms early in the discussion. How many times have you and I heard presumably intelligent people say, "Maybe I didn't make myself clear," or "No, I didn't mean that." You won't be able to follow each other's thought if, different committee members assign different connotations to the same words.

Even such terms as "education," or "IQ" may mean different things to different people. No professional knowledge of semantics is required. Simply make crystal clear the precise meaning of any key words you use. It will save valuable time and frayed nerves.

My fourth point is: Be a cooperative, creative thinker. Group discussion is not a debating society. Don't go to a meeting prepared merely to uphold one proposition or determined to win assent to your way of thinking. You should be willing, in fact eager, to get new light on a question and be ready if necessary to modify your own point of view. The attitude you should bring to a professional meeting is one of seeking to know, rather than win your point.

Point five: Help generate, develop, and maintain a wholesome emotional tone in your meetings. How you say something may be just as important as what you say. Watch your tone of voice and try not to let your emotions rule your thinking. Warmth, yes, but don't let your emotion spill all over the place. Don't be stingy with your praise. Be generous, sincere, and gracious in offering commendation when it is due.

A presumptious, bullying, condescending manner is almost sure to be resented. "I wonder if we might consider . . . ?" or "May I suggest . . . ?" and other similar phrases are infinitely more conducive to a smooth meeting than strong, dogmatic statements.

Try to maintain a certain detachment, cultivate an objective viewpoint, keep your eyes on the goal, and dip deeply into your reservoirs of patience. Try to anticipate breaking points and protect colleagues from stabs to their self-esteem. If an angry outburst occurs, immediately cover up in quiet tones and draw the sting away from the injured member. Let the assumption be that the emotional outburst was a momentary lapse, not deliberate vindictiveness. Perhaps a good laugh at this point will be an effective emotional catharsis. Or the conference chairman may call for a cooling-off period of five or 10 minutes, then state once again exactly what it is that the members should be discussing.

RESTRAIN MONOPOLISTS

Point six: Restrain monopolists. Encourage the shy. Keep meanderers in the main channel. Pursue only promising tangents. Tactfully take the ball away from those who like to project their ego. Call on the introverts to make a comment or give some reaction. Long-winded individuals will retard reaching the committee's goals. Guard against this failure to focus and finish. If the discussion wanders, the committee chairman should restate the question and get a new start.

Point seven: Use appropriate research techniques to resolve sincere differences. Don't wrangle. If after adequate discussion the group is still fairly evenly divided as to

the proper action to take, consider whether a decision really must be made then and there. It is expedient sometimes to postpone making a decision until further study can be made by all the participants. Sometimes your best critical judgment will ripen while you walk home after some heated discussion.

One can always look up authorities, but this procedure is not wholly devoid of danger. Even authorities can disagree. Validity, reliability, and recency of experiments must always be checked. Conditions change so that yesterday's truth may be completely heterodox today.

Suppose the authorities do disagree and the members of the committee are hopelessly deadlocked. What then? Give each side the opportunity to prove its case. In other words, use the experimental method. Let each side design an experiment, control all the variables, isolate the experimental factor, run the experiment, interpret the result. If finances permit, the stubborn question can be turned over to the field-service division of some local university. Much better would be a participatory project in which the committee, community, and university specialists would all play an integral part. If the issue at stake involves values, principles, or problems not readily susceptible to tests and measurements, it should be remembered that there are recognized procedures for philosophical, sociological, historical, creative, and curriculum research also.

My last point—point eight—is: Summarize the constructive outcomes of your meetings with decisions always subject to review. Generally speaking, meetings tend to last too long so that a hurried, unsatisfactory attempt is made in the last two or three minutes to reach some agreement.

If you are a group leader, it is your responsibility to keep analysis of suggestions, evaluation of suggestions, and creative periods of discussion in separate categories. As the discussion moves along, you should summarize whenever a major point is finished before proceeding to the next one. You should summarize whenever the discussion has been drawn out or confused. And, of course, before the meeting is closed, you should summarize all the progress that has been made.

The purpose of most meetings is to bring clarification, understanding, agreement, and even the evolution of a new formula out of the interplay of ideas, cooperative thinking, and wishes of the participants. However, there is much to be said in favor of arriving at conclusions as "the sense of the meeting" rather than by an actual show of hands. It is also more defensible to have it understood that the decision is a tentative one whose results will be carefully examined and the area re-explored, if necessary, for further study. •

Guidance Is Needed

Reading Materials for Superior Readers

PAUL WITTY

In Materials for Reading

SUPERIOR readers will be found at every grade level. There are some who may be gifted mentally. There will be perhaps others somewhat above average in ability —pupils who are exceedingly industrious and diligent in their efforts to reach high academic goals. And children of average mental ability will sometimes be found, too, in the group of superior readers.

Materials which make the continuous development of the superior reader are required at every instructional level. To care for his needs multiple-track materials are now being prepared for basal instruction. One textbook company has developed a two-track program. Thus the basal readers include identical subject matter in two textbooks for a single grade level, and the text of one book is distinctly easier than the other. For the high school, another publishing company has produced materials of instruction on different levels of reading difficulty.

Perhaps the most ingenious development of such multiple-level materials is to be found in the "SRA Reading Laboratory" (Science Research Associates, 1956). This comprehensive compilation of materials includes 15 teaching units for each of the grades from third to twelfth. Each unit is presented in a four-page booklet, which is designated by color rather than by a grade marking. A preliminary reading test is used to establish each pupil's reading level. On completion of each unit, a test is given to reveal the pupil's status or growth in vocabulary and in ability to comprehend the printed materials. Thus, through the use of these materials, the superior reader might be enabled to progress rapidly in mastering reading skills.

Various adaptations of textbook materials to challenge the superior reader are found in our classrooms. According to one plan, several textbooks, published by different companies, are employed in each class. Sometimes the textbooks are chosen from three grade levels of difficulty when the abilities of children are found to vary widely. For a fifth grade, for example, one

Paul Witty is Professor of Education at the University of Chicago, Illinois. Reported from Materials for Reading, the proceedings of the 1957 Reading Conference held at the University of Chicago, *19–24.* *(Copyright 1957 by the University of Chicago. Composed and printed by the University of Chicago Press.)*

third of the textbooks might be at the fourth-grade level, another third at the fifth, and still another third at the sixth-grade level. This procedure makes it possible for the superior reader to have access to a variety of basal reading materials which are more appropriate and challenging than are the typical materials for his grade.

For the first-grade pupil who is a superior reader, primer material should be employed that is challenging in vocabulary and meaningful in concept content. He should also have access to story material that is well written, stimulating, and closely related to the child's first-hand experience. Imaginative materials, too, form part of a balanced reading program for such children. These children are particularly attracted to humorous and imaginative writing. They may read *The Cat in the Hat* again and again and also find special joy in Ludwig Bemelmans' *Madeline*.

Biography is popular with some of the young superior readers. An introduction to George Washington, Abraham Lincoln, and Benjamin Franklin, such as is given in the books by the d'Aulaires, is especially appropriate for the primary-grade child. His teacher should be zealous to see that the superior reader is also introduced to materials in the field of science. Special interests may be discovered by discussion of television programs such as "Zoo Parade."

An early introduction to books on many subjects is particularly desirable in helping the superior reader cultivate his taste and improve his skills. The book table in the primary classroom is a good place to display groups of books on various topics. Simple source materials and dictionaries should be available for the superior reader to use at this table.

FOR THE MIDDLE GRADES

In the middle grades it is desirable for the teacher to consult the results of standard tests to ascertain the frequency of superior readers and their needs in each grade. On occasions, it is appropriate to group the pupils in a class according to interest or ability.

Superior readers in a regular class may often profit from membership in a group that is reading according to a center of interest. The teacher should encourage the superior readers to contribute to such centers of interest and to each topic from their reading of stories classified one or more grades above their own. The teacher will find a number of aids to help her find the right book for the right child. Among them are the *Cadmus Catalog* (E. M. Hale) which will be especially helpful, since it contains short annotations of many excellent and well-liked children's books and the titles are classified by grade and by topic.

One of the objectives of instruction for the superior reader in these middle grades is to lead him to become independent and resource-

ful in using the library to satisfy his own needs. He should be encouraged to follow his interests and to develop a balanced and varied reading program. He should have guidance in the use of source materials and should be encouraged to make extensive use of dictionaries, maps, encyclopedias, and other reference materials.

The superior reader often needs help in satisfying his personal needs. In selecting books the teacher will work closely with the librarian. The superior reader also will profit greatly from experiences which combine the language arts and provide occasions for written and oral expression as well as reading.

Case studies suggest that even junior- and senior-high-school students who are generally good readers still need guidance. Some are inclined to read all materials in about the same way. Others are lacking in the development of specialized vocabularies. Others need to become skilled in critical reading ability. Still others read little independently and lack the ability to find and use source materials effectively. Thus it is necessary for each teacher associated with students in this age group to study them carefully and then try to provide diversified reading to satisfy worthwhile interests of individuals and groups.

The methods referred to earlier may be utilized for the superior reader, and such books as the following may be consulted as sources of materials: *By Way of Introduction* (American Library Association, 1949), Roos's *Patterns in Reading* (American Library Association, 1954), and *Books for You* (National Council of Teachers of English).

The teacher should try to see that the best of the old books, the classics, are introduced when pupils are ready to read them. Many of these books can be related to pupils' interests. The teacher must consider also that in the building of an ideal of self, books may help the superior reader greatly. Several writers are convinced that bibliotherapy provides opportunity for catharsis and greater insight into one's own motivation and the behavior of others. They agree that in bibliotherapy some sort of integration of intellectual perception and emotional drive takes place.

It is through various approaches that the teacher may acquire a somewhat valid basis for suggesting experiences in reading that will be especially valuable in fostering personal and social adjustment of the superior reader. Books, of course, will not be "prescribed" nor will reading be the sole method through which improved adjustment will be sought. Varied experience, discussion, and investigation will also be significant aspects of the process. In order to participate successfully in guiding the superior reader, the teacher will need to be acquainted with many books, as well as with reliable sources for other information. •

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Is Your Procedure Teacher-Directed?

Do Your Classroom Procedures Really Teach Communication?

MARJORIE B. SMILEY

In The English Journal

STUDENTS in English classes make oral reports, write compositions, and answer tests. They read assigned materials selected to illustrate literary periods, themes, and types. They may dramatize scenes from their reading, or engage in writing or oral exercises to improve their verbal skills. And students are told that their use of language must be logical, that it must communicate to an audience, that different levels of usage are appropriate to different situations, that they should listen when someone else is speaking.

In all of this it is our hope that they will come to learn that communication is a social process and that language and thinking are integrally related. But if we critically examine the communication that takes place in our classrooms, we are likely to realize, perhaps with surprise, that during most class hours what students experience is communication that is teacher-dominated, teacher-directed, and teacher-evaluated.

Almost all of this communication involves the teacher and one student at a time. Except for infrequent questions to the teacher, student-initiated communication is likely to be limited to "out-of-field" communication on last night's TV show, dates for lunch, and other extra-English concerns which are summarily inhibited by the alert teacher.

Marjorie B. Smiley is Assistant Professor of Education and Director of the Office of Institutional Research at Hunter College, New York City. Reported from The English Journal, *XLVII (February 1958), 81–85.*

The issue here is the relative merit of teaching important communication attitudes, understandings, and skills by definition and authoritative identification or by socialized procedures emphasizing student participation—and especially group participation.

Probably no one thing is more essential in making what is learned about communication genuinely functional and effective than the exploitation of group procedures in daily classroom experience. Every instance in which communication in the classroom becomes a student-initiated, rather than a teacher-initiated and conducted process, provides opportunity for heightening the quality of the communication skills.

What are the occasions in the English classroom for teaching

communication as a social process? Three major occasions serve this purpose. First, cooperative teacher-student planning; second, mutual assistance among students in the improvement of language skills; third, discussion, either in small groups or by the total class group, of what is studied.

Teacher-student planning is sometimes identified solely with "core" or other kinds of experimental curriculums, but in fact every classroom provides opportunities for involving students in planning. However, if teacher-student planning is to be genuinely meaningful it must be based on really effective communication among students and between students and teacher.

Many teachers initiate student planning "cold"; that is, they start with the question, "What shall we read?" or "How shall we review the principles of grammar?" or "How shall we grade original stories?" If the teacher asks such questions with the intent of bringing students around to his idea while letting them think the idea is theirs, he is guilty of degrading the process of communication.

Too often an occasion for pooling ideas for subsequent evaluation and decision is reduced to a kind of "fishing" for the "right" suggestion. Students soon learn in such situations to communicate not their own ideas but those they think the teacher will welcome. The next time you are tempted to short-circuit genuine communication by such methods, stop and ask yourself the question: "Am I teaching my students to find expression for *their* ideas, or to play guessing games?"

Cooperative planning should involve the entire group. If there is occasion for work in small groups or committees, the teacher will need to help student leaders or chairmen to exercise the same kind of consideration and honesty toward their classmates' planning efforts that the teacher exemplifies.

USE STUDENT GROUPS

Perhaps the least exploited possibility for increasing student-controlled processes in the English classes is the use of student groups in improving the technical aspects of language. Pairs or small groups of students can, with guidance, undertake most of the oral or written drill required in English classes and can, in the role of editorial boards, review, edit, and comment on student writing. When the correcting function is shifted from the teacher to classmates, the students learn that the criterions for correctness, readability, and communicativeness do not reside in the person of the teacher but in the response of an audience and in the application of principles of grammar, usage, and form. Papers judged by the teacher only belie all professions of the importance of evaluating writing as communication between the writer and his audience.

Another frequently used procedure, that of having student papers read aloud to the entire class

and commented on by class members, tends also to encourage students not to listen to their classmates' papers for what they say but for the opportunities they afford to make a critical comment that will win the approval of the teacher. It is at once a more productive and a more humane procedure to have papers read and commented on in small face-to-face groups. Students will profit from opportunities to test their communication efforts in a draft stage before small, *listening*—instead of large, *judging*—audiences.

In the development of oral communication skills, small group discussion has equivalent advantages over large class discussions. Unquestionably, the opportunities for setting discussion in face-to-face groups of five or six students should be explored and exploited by English teachers who wish to provide optimum conditions for developing students' ability to listen to others and to participate in genuinely mutual communication.

But certain principles and cautions are relevant to good discussion, whether in small or large groups. Perhaps the key distinction between the kind of verbal activity that characterizes most classroom periods and that essential to genuine communication is that the first is answer-centered and the second is problem-centered. "Problem" is broadly defined here in the sense that it is used by John Dewey as the initiating stage of all creative thinking. In the English classroom the problems may be: "How does Sandburg let us know how he feels about Chicago?" or "What arguments will be most convincing in our editorial for the school paper on 'Why students should support their G.O.'?" Such questions focus on problems of meaning, audience, and form; each is susceptible to a variety of points of view and calls for the use of facts but does not make fact a matter of discussion.

On the other hand, "Who wrote 'Dover Beach'?" or "Which is the action word in this sentence?" are not suitable discussion questions. Discussion is not recitation, debate, a series of reports, or small talk. Its purpose is to engage students in the rigorous development of ideas. Useful discussion has other valuable characteristics but what is essential to all discussion—that is, to thinking—is that there shall be movement. In a lecture, a product is transmitted; in a discussion, a product is *developed*.

If students are to learn that communication with their peers has point, that language is not a school subject but man's chief instrument of thought, they must have daily experience in this kind of discussion. They must learn to listen sympathetically and critically to their classmates and not to their teacher only. All teachers, but English teachers particularly, must help in this learning by continuous efforts to direct discussion from student to student instead of from student to teacher. •

They Can Do More Than Required

Enrichment Topics for Bright Pupils in High-School Algebra

JOSEPH N. PAYNE

In The Mathematics Teacher

THE bright pupil is receiving increasing attention in the United States today. But the movement to make widespread provisions for bright students is barely past the stage of recognizing that it should be done.

In mathematics, the familiar two-track, or multiple-track, offering provides some differentiation in opportunity for bright pupils. Seldom, however, do all the pupils who enrol in the conventional elective courses of algebra, geometry, and trigonometry have high aptitude for success in mathematics. Accordingly, it is seldom feasible to organize the courses for bright pupils exclusively. As to the extent of other facilities for bright pupils in mathematics, there is little experimental evidence. However, there is widespread agreement among authorities that the provisions for the bright pupils are woefully inadequate.

Enrichment of the school curriculum is widely endorsed by authorities, teachers, and school administrators as a method of providing for bright pupils. But too often, enrichment has meant more problems of the same kind given the rest of the class and has not required of the bright pupil full use of his intellectual capacities.

Joseph N. Payne is Assistant Professor of Education at the University of Michigan, Ann Arbor. *Reported from* The Mathematics Teacher, *LI (February 1958), 113–17.*

There is agreement among authorities that enrichment should involve modification in both content and teaching methods. It should entail content and activities that require a high order of logical thinking and creative imagination; it should deepen and strengthen understanding. One of the main troubles has been that teachers do not feel capable of developing enrichment materials or do not have the time to do it.

This paper is a short report of a study whose primary purpose was to help teachers in this dilemma. The study dealt with the enrichment of algebra for bright pupils through the use of selfinstructive topics.

A panel of experts first selected a list of topics they thought suitable for enriching high-school algebra. These were carefully studied, and from the list, 24 topics were developed into written materials for the use of bright pupils. Some of the topics were complete

in themselves, while others formed a sequential series.

Among those complete in themselves were: *Algebra in Retrospect*—notes from the history of algebra; *Men of Mathematics*—biographies of the great mathematicians of all time; *Short Cuts in Computation*—algebraic development of rules for multiplying and dividing by 10 and the powers of 10, 25, 50, 75, and 125, and algebraic explanation of rule for squaring a number ending in 5; and *Mathematical Recreations and Puzzle Problems*—number problems and games, and problems of reapportionment by decanting. This shows the variety offered.

Three topics comprised one of the two sequential series:

Arithmetic Mean—calculation of arithmetic mean by the short method including the mean from a frequency distribution and calculation of mid-mean; *Mean and Standard Deviation*—calculations of mean and standard deviation and their use to measure variation within a set of numbers and the use of standard deviation to make simple probability calculations; and *Normal Curve of Probability*—tables for ordinate and area of normal curve.

The 24 enrichment topics were used experimentally at Indian Springs School, an independent secondary school for boys located near Birmingham, Alabama, and by six mathematics teachers in public high schools in Alabama, Tennessee, and Florida. Eighty-four pupils completed one or more enrichment topics. The 84 pupils completed a total of 209 enrichment topics.

The manner in which the topics were used was left largely to the teacher. But in the set of instructions these teachers were given some suggestions. For example: a student finishes a unit of work before the class does and chooses an enrichment topic to work on while the class finishes the unit; or students use the enrichment topics as individual or group projects for a mathematics club; or a teacher works with a small select group of students on a particular enrichment as often as she can spare the time from her regular class work.

Actually the topics were used largely on an individual basis. A pupil chose a topic for study and worked on it as he found time, either in class or outside of class. No reduction was made in the class requirements for pupils who were working on enrichment topics, and no "extra credit" was given pupils who completed topics. The pupils were told that the prime purposes of the enrichment topics were to further their own knowledge and to broaden and deepen their mathematical background.

CONCLUSIONS

Some of the conclusions of the study follow:

1. There appeared to be a close positive relationship between the mathematical ability of the pupils and their success in the study of

enrichment topics. On the other hand, the relationship between intelligence quotients and success in the study of enrichment topics did not appear to be so high.

2. Many bright pupils found time to study enrichment topics and at the same time maintain a high standard of work in their regular mathematics course.

3. The enrichment topics seemed to produce a more enthusiastic pupil attitude towards mathematics.

4. In general, the bright pupils in mathematics were more interested in the mathematical ideas than in the computation of the answer to a problem. Also, they tended to minimize the importance of accuracy in computation.

5. Pupils seemed more interested in studying topics that were complete within themselves than they were in following a series of sequential topics.

6. Content that was new and novel helped to motivate pupils in their study.

7. For very bright mathematics pupils, who are also active and curious, it seemed hardly possible to enrich too much. The pupils who met with greatest success in the study of enrichment topics showed no indication of being overworked or of reaching a ceiling.

8. The extent to which enrichment topics were used by pupils appeared to depend in a large measure on the enthusiasm of the teacher for the topics and his ability to motivate pupils to undertake topics for study.

9. All teachers using the topics said that the use of the enrichment topics in their classes required practically none of their time. This conclusion is of particular significance because almost all of them had stated that they were overworked and had very little free time.

10. Pupils tended to finish a topic sooner when a definite time allotment was suggested. This was particularly true when a pupil first began the study of enrichment topics.

11. As a rule, pupils were able to follow the written explanations in the topics with comparative ease.

12. While the enrichment of algebra was the primary concern of this study, sufficient use of the topics was made by geometry pupils to indicate that pupils with the necessary general mathematical maturity will study enrichment materials that do not relate directly to the subject currently studied.

13. There was evidence that teachers participating in this study had made no special provisions for bright pupils in their classes. This use of the enrichment topics, in most cases, was their first attempt to make special provision for such pupils.

14. This study has clearly shown that bright pupils can do considerably more than they are presently required to do. The idea that bright pupils are often not fully challenged has received additional experimental evidence. •

With Education in Washington

THE EDUCATION DIGEST WASHINGTON BUREAU

A Tragic Trap?—What record will Congress write in response to the pressures to strengthen the nation's educational system? With only a little more than two months remaining for this session of Congress, here is how schoolmen are currently appraising the Washington legislative scene:

Federal aid for science scholarships is regarded as a distinct possibility. The final bill, educators believe, will probably be a compromise between the Administration's proposal for 10,000 scholarships and the Democratic-backed plan for 40,000 scholarships. In other words, out of the lengthy hearings and fat record of testimony, will come a thin bill.

And that's where the certainty ends.

In the "good-chance-for-passage" category is a bill that would provide federal assistance to schools for the purchase of scientific equipment and general expansion of school science departments. Enactment of such a measure hinges on a number of factors, foremost of which is the amount of opposition anti-federal-aid forces can muster.

Most crucial of the federal-aid bills—and least certain of passage—are proposals to provide federal funds for school construction.

As it now shapes up, the key issue to passage of a school construction bill revolves around the economic well-being of the country. Chances for Congressional approval of a federal school construction program are now regarded as 50-50, but only if the current business recession deepens. If the economy strengthens, then the odds in favor of a bill will drop.

An anti-recession school-aid bill has ramifications which educators in Washington do not like.

Aside from their feeling that the need for more classrooms should be the sole factor in determining approval of a school building program, they point out that a federal make-work project would mean that the program would be administered by a public works administrator "rather than by the U. S. Office of Education and state departments of education where it belongs."

Involvement of nonschool people in administering federal funds for school construction could result in what one official has termed "many irregularities."

Thus, schoolmen here who have labored long and hard for a federal-aid-to-construction program now find themselves caught in a tragic trap that makes one of their major objectives dependent on economic misery.

Seeing Eye to Eye—Partially.—It isn't often that the U. S. Chamber of Commerce and the mass member educational organizations headquartered here are in agree-

ment. When they are—that's news.

The issue on which they have joined hands, admittedly, has universal appeal—a cut in personal income taxes.

The Chamber and the educational organizations are currently seeing eye to eye on a proposal that would authorize teachers to make income-tax deductions for personal educational expenses. They agree it would serve as an incentive to teachers to take advanced courses, with a resulting improvement in their quality of instruction.

The Chamber's endorsement of the tax-deduction proposal — embodied in the King-Jenkins Bill (HR 4662) and many similar bills —is part of its over-all plan for across-the-board tax cuts as a solution to education's financial problems. And that's where the Chamber and the educational organizations part company.

The Chamber theorizes as follows:

Reduced personal and corporate income taxes would free more money for grants to higher education by individuals, corporations, and foundations.

In so doing, says a spokesman for the National Chamber, "the threat of providing an entering wedge for federal direction or control of education can be averted."

The Chamber's abiding fear of "federal control" also prompts it to propose a kind of "take from Peter to pay Paul" solution to the financial crises facing elementary and secondary schools. It advocates reduced federal personal income taxes and increased local, county, and state taxes to help pay for school construction, teacher salaries, and equipment.

Use More A-V Materials.—Take another look at your budget, Mr. School Administrator, and revise it to include more money for audio-visual materials.

That's the firm conclusion of a recently-published pamphlet on *Audio-Visual Instruction* being circulated here. Says the authoritative publication:

"Research amply justifies the use of audio-visual instruction to a very much greater extent at all school levels. Although there is need for both more specific and more basic research, we have enough evidence now to warrant much greater expenditures for equipment and materials."

The document leads up to its plea for more intensive use of audio-visual techniques by citing these demonstrated advantages:

1. Research has shown conclusively that audio-visual materials can convey facts—even on such abstract subjects as logic in a college course in philosophy which has actually been . . . "taught with the help of a flannel board."

2. Fact teaching by audio-visual methods appears to be accomplished more efficiently, and in less time, than by traditional methods. "The saving of instructional time has sometimes been spectacular."

3. Experiments have shown that

retention of facts is increased "substantially" by audio-visual instruction.

4. Research has corrected the earlier erroneous impression that audio-visual instruction makes for "passive" learning.

But the real key to the successful use of any audio-visual material—no matter how excellently prepared and attractively packaged—says the document—is the skill with which the classroom teacher can bridge the gap between the audio-visual presentation and her own classroom discussion. "A film can teach without a teacher present," says the booklet, but countless experiments show that "the value is enhanced as much as 100 percent if the teacher prepares the class for the film showing, discusses it immediately afterward, sometimes repeating the showing."

What the document is stressing is really a variation on an old theme—"audio-visual materials can never replace the teacher but they can help him do his job more effectively."

Audio-Visual Instruction was a joint publishing venture of two departments of the National Education Association — of Classroom Teachers and of Research — as part of the series on "What Research Says to the Teacher."

NEA Membership Down.—National Education Association officers are watching membership registration figures with concern.

Still too early to get the final total, it is already obvious that the organization will suffer a membership loss this year.

Final membership totals for 1958 will not be available until May 31, but as of the end of March—with the bulk of membership registrations received—a running total showed NEA had signed up just over 608,000. Total 1957 membership was more than 703,000, highest in the organization's history.

What has happened is actually nothing that was not realistically expected.

Staff officials here say that a membership drop-off this year—despite the higher goals set by affiliated state associations—was inevitable because of NEA's 100 percent increase in dues this year. Such was the case on two previous occasions when dues were increased.

But doubling the dues—from $5 to $10—may not be the sole factor for NEA's anticipated membership loss of about 13 percent. The question is being asked here: How much of a factor has been the organization's stand on school integration?

NEA is on record as calling for a solution to the racial segregation issue by local communities through "a spirit of fair play." Its convention-adopted resolution asserts that the issue is "capable of solution" and asks for leadership by "responsible" citizens on both sides of the question.

When the question of integration and NEA's membership loss is put to organization spokesmen,

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they readily concede that the issue has cost "some loss" in membership. But they are not willing to say how much. They point out that membership losses have been sustained in both the North and South.

But one gets the feeling—and final membership figures later this month may bear it out—that defection by southern members may be as much responsible for the membership loss in NEA as the "normal expected" drop-off in the first year after a dues increase.

Stay in School Campaign.—High-school guidance officers and counsellors will get some new materials to help potential drop-outs.

They will be telling youngsters about to desert their classes that:

1. They are doing a disservice to their country by not continuing their schooling.

2. They are doing themselves a greater disservice by leaving before graduation from high school.

These will be the main points of stress during this month's "National Stay in School Campaign," the annual drive jointly sponsored by the U. S. Office of Education and the Labor Department.

The "Stay in School Campaign," now rounding out a decade, has added significance this year in the face of the dramatic technological changes that have taken place in recent months.

"Skilled and educated technicians will be among America's greatest needs in the immediate years ahead," said a U. S. Office of Education spokesman. "That's what we will be telling school guidance officers to stress in their interviews with kids who have made up their minds to leave school before graduation," he said.

Federal officials will also be telling guidance officers to stress the "economics" of leaving school early. For example, sponsors of the "Stay in School Campaign" point out that the last decennial census in 1950 showed that the more education a person had the less likely was he to be unemployed. In a shaky economy, youngsters will be advised, it is "good business" to stay in school.

Guidance officers and counsellors will also be able to say that of the 900,000 youngsters in the 16-17 age bracket who are not now attending school at least half are not employed.

"National Stay in School Campaign" is one of those low-budget operations for which Congress never seems to be able to find the funds. But the campaign carries on year after year with funds taken out of the operating budgets of the Labor and Education Departments. It is aimed at rectifying these disturbing figures:

Out of a total population of 24 million in the 14- to 24-year age bracket, only 8.4 million are currently enrolled in high school and 3.4 million in college.

Of them, only 60 percent can be expected to graduate from high school and 12 percent from college. •

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Speakers announced for the con- expertly supervised as are experi-

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CHANGES IN SUPERINTENDENCIES:

Greensboro, N. Car.: **Philip J. Weaver**, assistant superintendent, has been named successor to **Ben L. Smith**, retiring.

Harrisburg, Pa.: **Clarence E. Zorger**, superintendent 16 years, has resigned.

Whittier, Calif.: **Fred Bewley** has resigned.

Passaic, N. J.: **Clark W. McDermith**, superintendent since 1946, has resigned to become superintendent at Cranford, N. J.

Washington, D. C.: **Carl F. Hansen**, assistant superintendent, has been named acting superintendent to replace **Hobart M. Corning**, retired.

COLLEGE PRESIDENTS:

Northeastern University, Boston, Mass.: **Carl E. Ell**, president since 1940, has announced his retirement, effective in June, 1959.

Casper College, Wyo.: **George L. Hall**, director of development for the Educational Television and Radio Center, Ann Arbor, Mich., will become president in June.

Stephens College, Columbia, Mo.: **Seymour A. Smith**, associate professor of religion in higher education, Yale University, has been appointed successor to **Thomas A. Spragens**, resigned.

Arizona State College, Flagstaff: **J. Lawrence Walkup** has been named president.

Corning Community College, N. Y.: **William Lee Perry**, vice-president of Pacific University, Forest Grove, Ore., has been named president of this new college, scheduled to open in the fall of 1958.

TEACHER-TRAINING INSTITUTIONS:

Teachers College, Columbia University, New York: **Willard S. Elsbree** has been named director of the division of administration and guidance and acting head of the department of educational administration, succeeding **John K. Norton**, who will retire in July.

University of Wisconsin, Milwaukee: **George W. Denemark**, assistant dean and professor of education at the University of Maryland, has been named dean and professor of education.

OTHER CHANGES AND APPOINTMENTS:

Claude Purcell, assistant state superintendent of schools for Georgia, has succeeded **M. D. Collins**, retired, as state superintendent. Mr. Collins, who has headed the state schools since 1933, has been named superintendent emeritus.

Edward C. Roeber of the University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, is the new president of the National Vocational Guidance Association.

Madaline Kinter Remmlein, assistant director of the NEA's Research Division, and an authority on school law, will retire on July 1. Her successor will be **Martha Ware**.

Mrs. Margaret W. Efraemson, principal of Walton School, Philadelphia, Pa., has been elected president for 1958–59 of the NEA Department of Elementary-School Principals.

H. K. Newburn has announced his resignation as president of the Educational Television and Radio Center, Ann Arbor, Mich., effective in September. Dr. Newburn has headed the Center since 1953.

David H. Russell, professor of education, University of California, Berkeley, has been elected president of the American Educational Research Association, NEA.

NEA Convention

THE National Education Association will hold its annual convention this year in Cleveland, Ohio, June 29-July 4. More than 10,000 teachers and administrators are expected to attend the event, which will have as its general theme, "Our Future Goes to School Today."

Speakers announced for the convention include Lawrence G. Derthick, U. S. Commissioner of Education; Mark Schinnerer, superintendent of schools at Cleveland, Ohio; Max Lerner, professor of American civilization, Brandeis University; C. C. Furnas, chancellor of the University of Buffalo; James B. Conant, president emeritus of Harvard University; Jerald Brauer of the University of Chicago; and Lyman V. Ginger, NEA president and dean of the college of education, University of Kentucky.

Adult Education

APPROXIMATELY eight million persons in the U. S. attend at least one formal adult-education class each year, according to a recent national survey.

The survey, the first of its kind, was requested by the U. S. Office of Education, conducted by the Bureau of Census, and financed by a $10,000 grant from the Fund for Adult Education.

The survey showed that 30 percent of the adult-education students were over 45 years of age and more than 70 percent were over 30.

Rocketry Warning

A WARNING against improperly supervised rocket experiments has been issued by the U. S. Office of Education.

The release states that students should not experiment with rockets and other missiles unless such activity is as rigidly controlled and expertly supervised as are experiments by rocket scientists and engineers.

In the absence of such safety measures, educational activities in these new fields should be confined to less spectacular but important projects, Office of Education officials advised.

"Young people's interest in rocketry and other scientific fields definitely should be encouraged," Lawrence G. Derthick, U. S. Commissioner of Education, declared. "However," he said, "recent serious accidents involving persons experimenting with rockets emphasize the need for strict precautions."

AASA Meetings

MORE than 8,000 school administrators attended the regional convention of the American Association of School Administrators in Cleveland, March 29-April 1. This convention wound up the 1958 series of regional conventions of the AASA. Earlier conventions were held in St. Louis and San Francisco.

Herold C. Hunt, former undersecretary of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare and presently Charles W. Eliot Professor of Education, Harvard University, received the American Education Award for 1958 at the closing session of the conference.

Treasury Ruling

THE U. S. Treasury Department ruling in April permitting teachers additional deductions from their

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income taxes was called "the most significant step ever taken by the U. S. government to improve the economic status of teachers" by William G. Carr, NEA executive secretary.

The new regulation liberalized the deductibility of educational expenses of teachers from income subject to income tax. Teachers now can deduct expenses incurred voluntarily for further education. Previously they could only deduct expenses for education required by their school boards.

The new regulation is retroactive to 1954, but amended returns must be filed within four years of the tax year under consideration.

It has been reported that the new ruling may put as much as $20 million back into the pockets of U. S. teachers every year.

Driver Education

Too many high-school driver-education courses are failing to lay proper groundwork for a lifetime of driving, according to a recent statement by Thomas N. Boate, manager of the Accident Prevention Department of the Association of Casualty and Surety Companies.

After a decade of evaluating driver-education programs in the nation, the Association announced that its evaluation is being sharply revised to place more emphasis on the quality of instruction given than on the number of schools and students participating in the program.

Mr. Boate pointed out that the movement has shot up faster than adequate instruction could be provided. As a result, a great number of courses are being conducted to impart only that skill and knowledge necessary to enable beginning drivers to pass a state drivers-license examination. It is more important, he said, that proper driving attitudes be implanted in young drivers.

1958 Education Week

THE 1958 American Education Week will be held November 9-15. The theme announced for the observance is "Report Card U.S.A."

DATES OF THE MONTH:

May 9–10, International Reading Association, Milwaukee, Wis.

May 18–21, National Congress of Parents and Teachers, Omaha, Neb.

DATES OF THE COMING MONTHS:

June 22–26, National Association of Student Councils, Ferguson, Mo.

June 25–26, National Science Teachers Association, Columbus, Ohio.

June 26–28, National Association of Secretaries of State Teachers Associations, Berea, Ohio.

June 29–July 4, National Education Association, Cleveland, Ohio.

July 6–10, National School Public Relations Association, Detroit, Mich.

July 13–19, American Library Association, San Francisco, Calif.

July 26–29, National Audio-Visual Association, Chicago, Ill.

Aug. 11–15, American Vocational Association, Buffalo, N. Y.

August 18–21, Conservation Education Association, Salt Lake City, Utah.

Aug. 18–20, National Council of Mathematics Teachers, Greeley, Colo.

Sept. 23–27, National Council for Schoolhouse Construction, Seattle, Wash.

New Educational Materials

A Look at the Continuity in the School Program. Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1958. Pp. xi + 307. $4.00.

The 1958 Yearbook Committee of the A.S.C.D. chose as its goal "to further continuity of learning experience toward educational objectives." The committee then chose to approach the problem by studying experiences of some 3000 children with articulation and inarticulation, with frustration and smooth progress toward educational objectives. This was followed by an analysis of teaching, curriculum, guidance, and administration practices in terms of learning. The yearbook is formulated pretty largely within the framework of present school organization.

Esther J. Swenson, University of Alabama, was chairman of the yearbook committee.

Separate and Unequal. Louis R. Harlan. Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1958. Pp. xii + 290. $6.00.

Mississippi-born and Georgia-educated Professor Harlan tells in this book about public education in the four Southern seaboard states under the impact of two powerful forces—the wave of racism that swept the South in the early 1900's and the efforts during the same period of a group of northern philanthropists to help school men of the South toward their goal of "universal" education. The book covers the period from 1901-1915.

The author is on the faculty of East Texas State College.

TV and Our School Crisis. Charles A. Siepmann. New York: Dodd, Mead & Company, 1958. Pp. 198. $3.50.

This volume is an authoritative report to the public on the educational possibilities of television in schools and colleges. The theme—television's role in education—is important, the author claims, "because the theme is nothing less than the survival of our way of life and our continued prospects of world leadership—and television and education, both, have more to do with this theme than most people suspect."

Professor Siepmann is a consultant to the Fund for the Advancement of Education.

Philosophy and Education. Israel Scheffler, editor. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1958. Pp. ix + 311. $5.75.

The editor offers as the aim of this book the presentation of current philosophical methods in application to educational problems. Some of the authors he has drawn on to carry out this intention are: Ralph Barton Perry, Ernest Nagel, Sidney Hook, C. L. Stevenson.

The editor also states that the book is not intended to yield a practical program for the guidance of the schools but rather to focus attention on underlying conceptual problems which confront those who would understand what education is, how it is best talked about, and what sorts of reasoning are appropriate in educational contexts.

Other Materials Received:

Elementary

How Does a Garden Grow? Ann Towson Brown. New York: E. P. Dutton & Company, 1958. Pp. 62. $2.50. A story, with step-by-step photographs, which answers almost every imaginable question a youngster may have on gardens.

Kindergarten; The Key to Child Growth. Helen Thomas Peterson. New York: Exposition Press, Inc., 1958. Pp. 200. $4.50. A new comprehensive guide for teachers and parents.

Me and Frumpet. Evans G. Valens. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., Inc.,

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1958. Pp. 127. $2.75. This is a rollicking story, illustrated with photographs, telling of a young boy's adventure with size and science.

Air, Winds, and Weather. J. Myron Atkin and R. Will Burnett. New York: Rinehart & Company, Inc., 1958. Pp. vi + 58. $1.00. This pamphlet is the first of a series on elementary-school science activities.

All Chidren Have Gifts. Anne S. Hoppock. Washington, D. C.: Association for Childhood Education International, 1958. Pp. 32. $.75. This pamphlet puts the focus on finding and developing children's gifts.

SECONDARY

Biology Serving You. Charles Gramet and James Mandel. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1958. Pp. v + 616. $4.96. Text is organized into 10 units and 43 chapters.

Learning About Children. Rebekah M. Shuey, Elizabeth L. Woods, and Esther M. Young. Chicago: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1958. Pp. x + 294. $3.60. Text especially planned for high-school courses in family living.

GENERAL

School Health Program Essentials: Administrators Check List. 1958. Pp. 8. $1.00. Available from Tulare County School Health Advisory Board, Visalia, Calif.

Medicine and Man; The Story of the Art and Science of Healing. Ritchie Calder. New York: New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 1958. Pp. 256. $.50, paperbound. A new Mentor book.

The Indianapolis Science Education Story. Paul E. Johnson and Newton G. Sprague. **The Oklahoma Science Education Story.** James G. Harlow and Lyle M. Spencer. New York: Thomas Alva Edison Foundation, Inc., 1958. Pp. 19 each. Single copies free.

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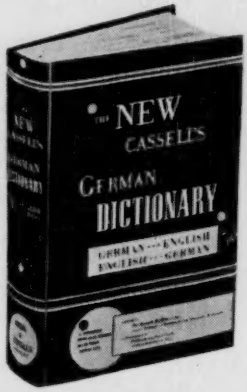

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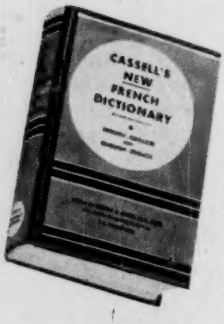

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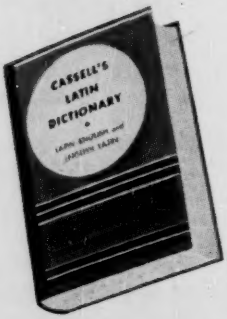

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